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A project to develop an adult basic vocational education and training programme as a contribution towards the development of human and social capital in Botswana

Cook, Kathryn

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**A project to develop an Adult Basic Vocational Education
and Training Programme as a contribution towards the
development of human and social capital in Botswana**

By

Kathryn Cook

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF BATH
Department of Education

May 2008

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ABSTRACT

In 1992, the Government of Botswana appointed a National Commission to review the education system and advise how it could promote human resource development to address the country's socio-economic challenges. The Commission identified the need to diversify the labour market and shift towards occupational groupings based on skills, attitudes and competence. However, fifteen years on, Botswana's dependence on diamond mining, coupled with immigration from neighbouring countries and a mismatch of skills supply and demand has resulted in a pool of labour exceeding the number of jobs available. Access, opportunity and social inclusion therefore represent major challenges, since large numbers of under and un-utilised people imply a heavy socioeconomic burden.

This thesis employed a Problem Based Methodology within the framework of a Project Cycle Management approach to develop a project for an Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training (ABVET) programme as a contribution towards the development of human and social capital in Botswana.

In summary, the research suggests that the Botswana's neo-liberal approach to education and training may be lacking in its capacity to reach those without the human and social capital necessary to gain access to education, training and employment. Consultation with stakeholders confirmed the need to expand education and training provision for the most vulnerable. However, evidence suggests that a simple human capital approach: 'more is better' is not necessarily appropriate. Instead, stakeholders deemed that the ABVET project must be *relevant* in terms of its content and approach and in addition, it must be *feasible* and *sustainable* to warrant government investment and inclusion in an education and training market fully subscribed in the race for credentials.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Aim of the thesis

The aim of this thesis is to develop a project for an Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training (ABVET) programme as a contribution towards the development of human and social capital in Botswana.

To achieve this aim, the author has used a Project Cycle Management approach and a Problem Based Methodology to frame the project and to present this in such a way as to allow policy makers in the Ministry of Education to make an informed decision whether to continue with the development and implementation of the proposed ABVET programme.

Background and justification of the substantive topic

Peace and development remain two of the most critical themes in Africa. In a continent where millions of people have had little or no opportunity to receive even rudimentary education and where more than half of the population struggle to have their basic needs such as food, shelter, safe drinking water and health care satisfied, development and peace continue to be central. Poverty, hunger, disease and violence, together with their closest ally, illiteracy, have become distinct features of degraded social conditions in many African countries. Since the oil crisis of the 1970's there have been profound changes in the world economy brought about by rapid increases in communication, technology, global competition and rationalisation, with an emphasis on efficiency and cost effectiveness. These changes have compounded socioeconomic challenges facing many developing countries and their effects on Botswana in particular will be discussed in chapters two and three.

Education and training are undoubtedly of great significance to developing countries trying to address their socioeconomic challenges. In recognition of this, the Government of Botswana in 1992 appointed a National Commission on Education. Its mandate was to review the education system and advise how best it could contribute towards human resource development and be more responsive to the needs and

aspirations of Batswana (plural for the citizens of Botswana). The Commission, after considerable consultation, submitted a report in July 1993, containing 424 recommendations focused on increasing diversity in the labour market, shifting towards occupational groupings based on skills, attitudes and competence (Republic of Botswana, 1993). These recommendations were approved by the National Assembly and mandated in the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) (Republic of Botswana, 1994) which will direct the development of education and training until 2019.

However, since the implementation of the RNPE, Botswana's dependence on diamond mining, coupled with a high population growth, immigration from neighbouring countries and urban drift, has resulted in a pool of labour far exceeding the number of jobs available (Republic of Botswana, 2001). Despite impressive economic growth rates, unemployment is a major problem. Furthermore, high numbers of school drop outs and economic difficulties have resulted in many poorer families remaining in the poverty trap, having little or no opportunity for social inclusion or mobility (Nguyen, Wu & Gillis, 2005). Indeed, according to the last 'Study of Poverty and Poverty Alleviation in Botswana' (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997), 38% of households were living in poverty in 1993 - 1994 with 62% of the poor or very poor living mainly in rural areas.

To address these problems, the Government published its ideology of a compassionate, just and caring nation entitled: 'Towards Prosperity for All' (Republic of Botswana, 1997), highlighting its commitment to eradicate absolute poverty by 2016. More commonly known as Vision 2016, this document aims amongst other things, to increase the awareness of the RNPE reinforcing that: "Sustainable economic diversification and sustainable employment creation, together with investment in human capabilities should remain the central pillars of government's long term strategy for poverty alleviation." (Republic of Botswana, 1997, p.34). Access, opportunity, and social inclusion represents not just a challenge to be met by Government, but also a threat, since the existence of large numbers of poor or under utilised people implies a

heavy burden in economic, social and human terms, as well as wasted opportunities to use potentially valuable human and social capital for national development.

The role of the researcher

I was employed as a Technical Assistant to the Ministry of Education, with the Government of Botswana, between 2001 and 2007 as part of the Vocational Education and Training Expansion Project co-financed between the Government of Botswana and the European Commission (EC). The EC defines Technical Assistants as: ‘Specialists, consultants, trainers and advisers contracted for the transfer of know-how and skills and the creation and strengthening of institutions’ (European Commission 2004, p.146). In this role, my mandate was to build capacity in the Department of Vocational Education and Training (DVET) to: “Contribute towards the development of Vocational Education and Training as a medium of economic progression, reduce reliance on expatriate expertise and develop Botswana’s human and social capital” (Department of Vocational Education and Training, 2001). To achieve this mandate my roles and responsibilities were defined in a set of Terms of Reference which specifically refer to the development of a ‘vocational basic skills programme’ (Appendix 1). On this basis, this study is a contribution towards achieving these Terms of Reference which was primarily to develop a project for an adult basic vocational skills programme that would contribute towards the development of human and social capital in Botswana.

The parameters of basic skills in this thesis are discussed in more detail in chapter three. In summary, I have adopted the definition from the World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990a) where basic skills are broadly defined as the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary for people to survive, improve the quality of their lives and to continue learning. Therefore, to reflect the broader nature of basic skills as espoused by the World Conference on Education for All, and to take cognisance of the inclusion of vocational education and training, basic skills in this thesis will be from now on termed: ‘Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training’, abbreviated to ABVET.

Context of the enquiry

Within the framework of my Terms of Reference (Appendix 1), three research questions were formulated for this study:

1. Why is there a need for an adult basic vocational education and training (ABVET) project in Botswana?
2. To what extent can ABVET contribute towards the development of human and social capital?
3. To what extent can a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach frame a relevant, feasible and sustainable ABVET project for Botswana?

Question one: ‘Why is there a need for an adult basic vocational education and training (ABVET) project in Botswana?’ was formulated to analyse the situation at the national and sectoral level to identify potential problems, constraints and opportunities which the project may need to address as it is developed and implemented. In addition, this question would also allow for a review of Botswana’s socioeconomic indicators and of national and donor priorities. The main purpose of this question, therefore, was to contribute to the formulation of both relevant and justifiable overarching project objectives within which the programme could be developed.

Question two: ‘To what extent can ABVET contribute towards the development of human and social capital?’ was perceived to be important for two main reasons. Firstly, to establish whether there is a link between adult basic education and training and the accumulation of human and social capital and secondly, to investigate lessons learned from similar projects and programmes, so that those factors which contributed towards project success and failure could inform the design and implementation options for the ABVET programme.

Question three: 3. ‘To what extent can a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach frame a relevant, feasible and sustainable ABVET project for Botswana?.’ This research question was formulated to assess the application

and suitability of both the methodology and approach frequently used by government planners in developing countries in partnership with donor agencies, to identify, design and implement development projects that are fit for purpose.

By addressing each of these research questions it is hoped that Ministry of Education policy makers would be in a position to make an informed decision as to whether to continue with the development and implementation of the proposed ABVET project as a modality for promoting the development of human and social capital in Botswana.

In an endeavour to ensure that the proposed project reflects the opinions of stakeholders, a critical realist stance was adopted. A Problem Based Methodology was used within the framework of the European Commission's Project Cycle Management (PCM) approach to ensure as far as possible, that the proposed ABVET project was relevant, feasible and sustainable.

Outline of the Thesis

This study is broken down into six chapters:

Chapter two sets the scene by exploring the context of Botswana, reviewing the country's national development objectives and by discussing the Revised National Policy on Education which underpins the development of education and training in Botswana.

Chapter three presents a critical review of literature pertinent to the substantive topic and provides the theoretical framework within which the study is located. In particular, it briefly analyses literature related to the socioeconomic challenges many developing countries are facing, exemplifying how countries with similar backgrounds to Botswana have responded to these challenges. This leads onto the potential role of adult basic vocational education and training as a way of building human and social capital.

Chapter four addresses the application of Problem Based Methodology within the context of a Project Cycle Management approach. A discussion and justification for the ontological position and the design of associated research methodologies and data collection techniques is also provided. More specifically, this chapter discusses the rationale for a critical realist stance and the application of associated qualitative data collection techniques including questionnaires, document review, focus group discussions and interviews.

Chapter five presents and analyses the findings of the research in relation to the design of the ABVET project and attempts to establish the project's likely relevance, feasibility and sustainability.

Finally, **chapter six** presents conclusions and recommendations emanating from the research as they relate to the substantive, theoretical and methodological issues. This section evaluates the strengths and limitations of the research methodology and the extent to which the study has addressed each of the research questions. Finally, areas warranting further research are identified with a view to contributing to the wider field of enquiry.

CHAPTER TWO

Botswana's National Development Priorities

Introduction

This chapter contextualises the thesis by examining relevant documentation related to research question one:

Why is there a need for an adult basic vocational education and training (ABVET) project in Botswana?

It is here that the context of Botswana will be explored in terms of its national development priorities and current educational and economic policy. A synopsis of National Development Plan Nine 2003-2009 (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003) as well as Vision 2016 (Republic of Botswana, 1997) and relevant educational sector policy initiatives and macroeconomic issues will be discussed. This is followed by an overview of documentation which highlights the role of the European Commission's (EC) support to Botswana's development priorities.

Botswana in perspective

Botswana has a population of 1.7 million (Republic of Botswana, 2001). Life expectancy is estimated at 55.7 years with approximately 38% of the population under the age of 14, attributed mainly to the prevalence of HIV, currently estimated at 38.8% (Republic of Botswana, 2004). Botswana is multiethnic and multilingual, with approximately twenty three different ethnic groups that speak approximately thirty eight different languages. The national language is Setswana and the official language is English.

As one of Africa's few success stories, Botswana has transformed since independence in 1966, from one of the world's least developed countries with 90% of the population subsisting in drought-prone agriculture and a per capita income of US\$360; into a middle-income country, with 50% of the labour force employed in formal sector activities and a per capita income estimated at US\$3,451 in 2004 (British Council, 2006).

Botswana's long track record of fiscal prudence over the last three decades is a key feature of the country's remarkable economic growth, recording a real growth average between 1997/2000 of 5.9%, peaking in 2000/2001 at 8.4%. The characteristics of Botswana's good economic governance can be summarised as:

- national development planning and its integration within the annual budgetary process and
- prudent macroeconomic management and high state saving capacities.

Socioeconomic challenges facing Botswana

To improve the living standards of all Botswana the Government faces the triple challenges of: poverty, unemployment and HIV/AIDS (Republic of Botswana and European Delegation, 2001).

Poverty

Even though Botswana is classed as a middle income country, one third of its population lives on less than one US Dollar a day. According to the Study of Poverty and Poverty Alleviation (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997), 38% of households were living in poverty in 1993/4, the poor or very poor living in mainly remote areas with 55% of the rural population living below the poverty line compared to 46% in urban villages and 29% in urban areas (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997). Factors of vulnerability include: female-headed households; HIV/AIDS; remoteness; lack of employment opportunities and inadequacy of skills for the labour market (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997). A more recent estimate in the UNDP Human Development Report for Botswana (2005) estimated that 30% of the population was income poor lacking sufficient income for essential needs beyond food, shelter, clothing and energy. The Government recognises, however, that this is caused in part, by the following:

“The country’s narrow economic base has meant that not enough formal sector employment opportunities are available to absorb all people seeking employment, or provide alternative income-generating opportunities for people depending on agriculture...the lack of sufficient human capabilities in education...to help people’s ability to take advantage of opportunities to improve their livelihoods and the well-being of their families.” (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997, p.5)

Since 1997, the Government has embarked on an effort to rid Botswana of poverty by 2016 (Republic of Botswana, 1997). The medium-term goal is to reduce the incidence of poverty by the end of 2007 to a rate of less than 23%. A poverty reduction strategy adopted in 2003 recommends sixteen programmes to be implemented over a ten-year period aimed at enhancing the accessibility of the poor to social investment and strengthening the capacity of local government to facilitate poverty reduction (Republic of Botswana, 2003). As part of this strategy, the Government has planned an ambitious development programme in rural areas at an estimated cost of one billion Pula, including the construction of primary and secondary schools and four rural technical colleges (at the time of writing, ten Pula was approximately equivalent to one Pound Sterling).

Unemployment

Employment in Botswana is influenced by a multitude of factors, including economic growth, demographics and educational enrolment. Unemployment is a major concern and shows no persistent signs of improvement (Republic of Botswana, 2001). When employment figures from both the formal and informal sectors are combined, unemployment rose from 13.9% to 19.5% between 1991 and 2001. Formal employment grew on average at 9.7% per annum in the 1980’s; but growth shrunk to 1.5% per annum over the decade leading up to 2001. The same 1.5% growth rate was observed in 2001, with 65% of new jobs created in the private sector. Some 33% of existing jobs in 2000 were in the private sector and parastatals, 22% in the public sector, 27% in the informal sector and 19% in agriculture. Total employment increased by 2.7% in the same ten year period (Republic of Botswana, 2001).

Socioeconomic developments have led to increasing challenges for the Government to sustain Botswana’s image as a peaceful and stable democracy. Dependence on diamond mining, as opposed to more labour intensive manufacturing, coupled with

high population growth and urban drift, has resulted in a pool of labour exceeding the number of jobs available with 19.6% of people unemployed in Botswana and actively seeking work (Republic of Botswana, 2001).

Education in Botswana is not compulsory, nevertheless, access to ten years of basic education has almost been achieved with 98% net enrolment rates (Republic of Botswana, 2004). After ten years, at the end of Junior Secondary School, pupils sit their Junior Certificate Examination. The results of the Junior Certificate Examination are used to determine progression to two years of Senior Secondary schooling and the opportunity to gain the Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education. Present capacity in the senior secondary sector however, is only 50% of the total number of pupils eligible to attend at this level. As a result, almost 50% of the population has been unable to reap the benefits beyond ten years of basic education. Limited capacity at the senior secondary level means that high numbers of pupils leave school unable to gain access to the labour market (Republic of Botswana 2001).

HIV/AIDS

The President of Botswana declared HIV/AIDS a national catastrophe in 2000 and regularly exhorts the population to fight the scourge. Botswana is reportedly one of the most affected countries in the world, with levels of infection exceeding 30% in the 15 - 49 year old age group. The enormous direct costs of care and treatment are accompanied by indirect loss to the economy, especially in terms of human resources, as well as the devastating human and social effects which may significantly reduce productivity and rate of economic growth. The Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis (BIDPA) study in 2001 on the macroeconomic impact of HIV/AIDS predicted that, over the period 1996-2021, the annual GDP growth rate could be 2.5% less, and the economy 31% smaller than it would have been in the absence of the pandemic, thereby affecting Botswana's ability to achieve its long term vision for the future.

‘Towards Prosperity for All’ – Botswana’s long term vision for the future

Botswana’s long term vision for the future: ‘Towards Prosperity for All’ (Republic of Botswana, 1997), commonly referred to as Vision 2016 was borne out of extensive consultation by a Presidential Task Group in 1996. Vision 2016 is *the* document that guides Government’s strategic thinking, aimed at bringing about fundamental transformation across social, economic, entrepreneurial, political, spiritual and cultural lives of Botswana to keep pace with a rapidly changing global economy and social order. The Vision summarises its goals in seven pillars (Republic of Botswana, 1997, pp 5 – 13):

1. An educated and informed nation
2. A prosperous, productive and innovative nation
3. A compassionate, just and caring nation
4. A safe and secure nation
5. An open, democratic and accountable nation
6. A moral and tolerant nation
7. A united and proud nation

This thesis word limit does not allow discussion of each pillar; however, it is worth describing pillars one, two and three in more detail due to their relevance.

Pillar one: An educated and informed nation: By 2016 Botswana aims to have a system of quality education able to adapt to the changing needs of the country. The education system aims to empower its citizens through universal education to be productive and creative. Central to this is dissemination of information especially through information technology. It is anticipated that all Botswana will have access to media through radio, television and newspapers. Indeed by 2016 it is the Government’s aim that all Botswana will be able to use computer equipment in many aspects of everyday life.

Pillar two: A prosperous, productive and innovative nation: By 2016, Botswana hopes to have diversified its economy to attract investors. It is hoped that economic diversity will help to alleviate poverty and improve the quality of life for those less fortunate. The Government has set an ambitious target of tripling its per-capita income to a level equivalent to US\$8,500 by 2016. To achieve this, however, the Government acknowledges that Botswana needs to achieve almost full employment.

Pillar three: A compassionate, just and caring nation: A key aim of Vision 2016 is that Botswana will achieve a more equitable income distribution ensuring as many people as possible reap the benefits of its economic success. To achieve this, the Government aims to develop and implement policies that increase the participation of the poor in income earning activities so by 2016 absolute poverty will be eradicated.

Botswana's Ninth National Development Plan

Botswana relies on a six-year planning cycle, with mid-term reviews and annual budgets to update its National Development Plans in response to changes in the economic and political context. A robust and centralised national development planning system has provided the 'backbone' for the country's development efforts and a framework for coordinating and managing the implementation of Government's development priorities. Government involvement is coordinated by the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning (MFDP) which has helped to ensure political as well as administrative ownership of the planning, budgeting and reporting processes. The ninth National Development Plan (NDP 9) 2003/04 – 2008/09 (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003) was intended to mark the first major step towards integration of the long-term vision for Botswana through its central theme:

“Towards Realisation of Vision 2016: Sustainable and Diversified Development through Competitiveness in Global Markets.” (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003, p. XXVI)

Major public infrastructure projects are included in NDP 9 in education and training to accelerate economic growth and diversification. The total development budget was set at 5.8 billion Pula in 2006, of which the Ministry of Education was allocated 9%, representing 528 million Pula (Republic of Botswana 2006a). A significant policy

change emerged however, during this planning cycle, witnessing a massive investment in higher education, illustrated by the ring fencing of 235 million Pula for the Tertiary Education Development Fund and University expansion projects (the University of Botswana is currently the only University in Botswana). This project plans to expand the current number of places at the University of Botswana and build a second. This bold move, mainly at the expense of other education sub-sectors, reflects a ground swell of political support to expand higher education by 2010. It could be argued, however, that the shift in emphasis towards support for tertiary education is contradictory to Vision 2016, which is essentially aimed at improving conditions for the most vulnerable in society.

It is not surprising then, that the European Commission (EC) expressed concerns over this development since the Sector Policy Support Programme grant aid is paid directly to the treasury and indirectly funding tertiary education expansion contrary to their expressed wishes in the Joint Annual Appraisal (Republic of Botswana & European Delegation, 2006). This Government policy shift for the future development of Botswana appears to be grounded in neo-liberalism with its emphasis on building a high skilled, high wage, 'magnet' economy (Republic of Botswana 2006a, Brown & Lauder, 2001). Critics of neo-liberalism, however, may argue that Botswana is unable to guarantee access, opportunity and social inclusion in a high wage, high skilled, magnet economy; as a magnet economy reduces rather than increases access to those with lower socioeconomic status, favouring elites with its emphasis on credentialism, an issue that will be discussed in more detail in chapter three.

While a long succession of budget speeches and NDPs since independence continually emphasise the need to alleviate poverty and promote social inclusion, close scrutiny of allocations under the education budget for the last four development plans shows little evidence that serious effort is being made to assist the most vulnerable. Most of the focus of education public expenditure has been targeted at expansion and Botswana has made great achievements in areas of mainstream general education, technical and vocational education and tertiary education. However, there is still an apparent lack of focus on providing opportunities for the 300,000 illiterate adults in Botswana who have

minimal opportunities for engagement in the economy.

European Commission support to Botswana's National development priorities

During the 1980s, Botswana received one of the highest per capita aid allocations of any developing country, estimated at US\$200. However, as a percentage of Government expenditure, aid represented 45% in 1973, which fell rapidly to 20% in 1982, and 5% in 1993. The classification of Botswana as a middle income country resulted in an exodus of all but a few donors. At present, unlike most other African countries, aid represents less than 0.01% of Botswana's national budget and is hardly significant in relation to other key macroeconomic variables. The EC is the main donor and provides grant aid to Botswana through the European Development Fund (EDF). Botswana values its development partnerships and its politicians are forever expressing regret that donors have withdrawn, despite widespread poverty and a socioeconomic situation which hardly justifies the exodus. Cooperation with the EC is all the more appreciated because of its contractual nature and its predictability under the terms of the Cotonou Agreement (European Commission, 2000), the Country Strategy Paper (Republic of Botswana & European Delegation, 2001) and the Sector Policy Support Programme (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2004).

The Ministry of Finance and Development Planning is responsible for coordinating all donor assistance as part of the annual budget preparation and integration with national development planning, and it is important to note that unlike many other African countries, Botswana has never had a separate system for disbursing donor aid for nationally funded activities (Land, 2002).

Botswana's Country Strategy Paper

The principles and objectives for co-operation lie within the Cotonou ACP/EU Partnership Agreement which affirms the three objectives of EC development co-operation:

- Sustainable social and economic development
- Gradual integration of developing countries into the world economy

- Reduction and eradication of poverty (Republic of Botswana & European Delegation, 2001)

In comparison, Botswana's national development objectives contained in Vision 2016 are:

- Sustained development
- Rapid economic growth
- Economic independence
- Social justice

Based on the above principles and objectives, analysis of macroeconomic issues and of medium term challenges, there is a logical case for the continuation and expansion of EC support to Human Resources Development (HRD) in Botswana. The conclusions of the ninth Country Strategy Paper (Republic of Botswana & European Delegation, 2001) were developed from wide ranging discussions in Botswana during the first quarter of 2001 and endorsed by key stakeholders. As a result of this consultation, it was agreed that EC cooperation with Botswana during EDF 9 should concentrate on HRD for a number of reasons:

- The sector is recognised by the Government as being critical for employment creation, the reduction of inequity, and the eradication of poverty.
- Lack of educated and skilled personnel has been identified as a major constraint to Botswana's economic development.
- The effect of HIV/AIDS on the future availability of skilled and experienced personnel must be taken into account in the country's development plans.
- The EC has a certain 'comparative advantage' in the sector, in view of similar issues being addressed in Europe itself as well as its previous involvement in Botswana and the Southern African region.
- The EDF resources (€50 million) are of significant magnitude relative to the sector's needs and should therefore have a direct and measurable impact.

- EC assistance will complement the continuing activities of Botswana's other co-operating partners.
- The theme of education and training figures first in the new ACP/EU Partnership Agreement (Republic of Botswana & European Delegation 2001 pp. 15-16).

Botswana's Sector Policy Support Programme

In 2006, the EC commissioned a consultancy to prepare a financing proposal and development indicators agreeable to both the Government of Botswana and the EC for an Education and Training Sector Policy Support Programme. This document facilitated the new modality of funding EDF 9 and aimed to assist the Government in refining its strategy and plan for HRD under NDP 9 (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003). The resulting report (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2004) was based on extensive consultation with stakeholders and recommended five result areas aimed at improving the relevance, quality, access and efficiency of HRD: (i) establishment of a coherent National Qualifications Framework to promote a culture of lifelong learning; (ii) improvement of the planning, management and co-ordination for HRD under NDP 9; (iii) improvement of the quality, access and equity of education and training; (iv) establishment of a national strategy for e-learning; (v) effective provision and expansion of technical and vocational education and training.

This report paved the way for the signing of an: 'Education and Training Sector Policy Support Programme and Related Indicators' between the Government of Botswana and the EC to monitor progress and achievements across the education sector. Achievement of these targets would trigger disbursement of EC funds amounting to approximately €50 million during NDP 9. The overall objective of the Financing Agreement was to ensure access of *all* Botswana to high quality lifelong education and training with a view to producing self-reliant, knowledgeable and skilled individuals, who will engage in achieving Botswana's development goals and particularly the creation of employment, the reduction of inequity and the eradication of poverty in line with: NDP 9 (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003); Vision 2016 (Republic of

Botswana, 1997) and the Revised National Policy on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1994).

The context of adult basic education and training in Botswana

At Independence in 1966, Botswana was typical of most other African countries, whereby the social policies of the colonial state had neglected public education resulting in low levels of quality in formal education. Based on the work of Don Taylor (1985) and Dore (1976), Van Rensberg (2001) reiterated that problems associated with poor quality basic education in many African countries are largely due to the legacy imposed on Africa countries during the colonial era which aimed at regenerating a narrow social order rather than developing an individual for collective benefit. He goes on to claim that colonialism impacted on general education in Botswana by stating that: “The content of education is such that it does not prepare people to participate in economic life. It does not give them any understanding of their societies” (p. 5).

Early post-colonial educational policy focused on the expansion of formal education, particularly at primary and secondary level which gathered momentum with the discovery of diamonds in the late 1960s leading to changes in the socio-political economy. Driven by new class divisions and expanded state revenues, Botswana’s modernisation strategy included new social initiatives focusing on skills development and the expansion of vocational education and training (VET) (Youngman, 2000, p.260). Apparently inspired by the ideals of nation-building and self-reliance one such initiative included Education with Production by: “...linking work and study in such a way that they interact dynamically, strengthening all-round learning as well as achieving real economic and social benefits” (Van Rensberg, 2001, p.9).

Taken with the concept of Education with Production, Van Rensberg was instrumental in the formation of the Botswana Brigades which offered theoretical and practical training combined with productive work. This expansion of skills training beyond formal schooling was propelled by an increasing number of youth leaving primary school without employment prospects and a growing demand for semi-skilled labour in a rapidly expanding economy.

The 1980s, however, witnessed significant change in the economy and the training policy environment in Botswana brought about by the impact of globalisation. Globalisation and increased economic competition in particular in the Southern African region highlighted that the level of competence of a country's skilled workers is an essential factor in sustainable development. Moreover, the training methods and approaches used in enabling this skills development needed to be more versatile to cope with the rapid pace of change in technology. Whereas the traditional trades (typical of the Brigades) were once clearly demarcated from each other and utilised tools and techniques which could be easily transferred from one generation to the next, the emergence of the new technologies blurred these lines of demarcation.

However, the Brigades were slow to adapt to these challenges and the level and diversity of training offered remained largely unchanged since their inception. Furthermore, the required balance between accountability (for proper use of public funds) and autonomy has proved to be elusive giving rise to a fraught relationship between the Brigade movement and Government (FAS, 2001). This in turn led to a general lack of confidence on the part of industry and the public regarding the quality and scope of training in the Brigades. According to the FAS Report, many young people (and their parents) are inclined to regard the Brigades as a 'last resort', rather than as an institution of choice. The evaluation found a palpable sense of demoralisation among staff, as well as disaffection among trainees with the existing system with Brigades' energies being depleted by low self-esteem and a collective resentment at being labeled the 'poor relation'.

Moreover, this dilemma was evident prior to the FAS evaluation and presented a challenge to policy makers to offer new adult vocational education and training programmes which attached more emphasis to the qualities of adaptability, flexibility and resourcefulness, and to revise their assessment techniques to incorporate 'competency-based testing' to improve employer confidence in vocational qualifications which accord priority to the importance of skills training in the achievement of Botswana's development objectives (i.e. employment creation, productivity improvement, and overall human resource capacity building).

Revised National Policy on Education more commonly known as the RNPE (Republic of Botswana, 1994) was instrumental in bringing about this change through the reform of general education and the VET system with its aim to:

“...prepare Batswana for the transition from a traditional agro-based economy to the industrial economy that the country aspires to...The education system must develop moral and social values, cultural identity and self-esteem, good citizenship and desirable work ethics.” (p.5)

To achieve this aim, the objectives of the RNPE are to:

- a) Raise educational standards at all levels
- b) Emphasise science and technology in the education system
- c) Make further education and training more relevant and available to larger numbers of people
- d) Improve the partnership between school and community
- e) Provide life-long education to all sections of the population
- f) Assume more effective control of the examination mechanism to ensure that the broad objectives of the curriculum are realised
- g) Achieve efficiency in educational development

As a contribution towards achievement of these objectives the RNPE recommended that the Ministry of Education should expand vocational education and training by improving access and equity and preparing young adults for the world of work through Recommendations 57, 61 and 73 of the RNPE (Appendix 2). These recommendations lie at the core of Vision 2016 and NDP 9. The latter stressing the importance of:

“...investing in education and training in order to improve access and build human capacity for employment, including self employment and income generation...building a better quality of life and prosperity for all.”
(Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003 p. 268)

Adult basic education and training, however, did not seriously enter Botswana's national policy discourse until 1993 when it appeared in a report from the National

Commission on Education. The report included a chapter on adult education which states:

“Adult basic education refers to the learning opportunities organised to enable adults to learn literacy skills and to achieve the educational level of basic schooling, which in the context of Botswana’s education policy is the junior certificate....Adult literacy programmes typically involves literacy programmes and post literacy activities and the provision of opportunities to undertake general education.” (Republic of Botswana, 1993, p. 278)

In 1993, the first National Literacy Survey was conducted by the Central Statistics Office (CSO) and the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE). This survey sampled 20,000 households (7% of the total population) and administered a questionnaire and test to 12 to 65 year olds whose educational level was Grade 4 (fourth year of primary) or below. The tests were based on the narrow definition of literacy as the ability to read and write in Setswana or English and to carry out simple arithmetic. Respondents were categorised as literate if they scored 50% or more. The survey indicated a national adult literacy rate of 68.9%. The first National Literacy Survey was a large-scale quantitative study unfortunately undermined by its design limitations. Critiques by both Commeyras and Chilisa (2001) and the Second National Literacy Survey in 2003 (Central Statistics Office and the Department of Non-Formal Education) identified the narrow definition of literacy as a major problem, claiming that it failed to capture its complexity. They also suggested that the tests led to superficial results omitting important information such as the use of minority languages and how language is used for everyday purposes and access to the labour market.

In 2003, the Second National Literacy Survey tried to address many of the criticisms of the first, initially redefining literacy:

“Literacy is a responsive and context specific multi-dimensional lifelong learning process designed to equip beneficiaries with specialised knowledge, skills, attitudes and techniques to independently engage in practices and genres involving listening, speaking, reading, writing, numeracy, technical functioning and critical thinking required in real life.” (Central Statistics Office and the Department of Non-Formal Education, 2003, p.1).

The Second National Literacy Survey attempted to assess the balance of skills as described in this definition by using more realistic contexts for assessment. A stratified, two stage probability sample was used based on the number of households within a geographical area defined in the 2001 census. Respondents were between the ages of 10 and 70, had never attended school or had left before completing five years of primary education. A total of 7280 households out of a possible 404,706 equates to a sample of 1.8%, unfortunately representing a much smaller sample than that used for the first survey, raising doubts about the reliability of the results. A continuum scoring system was used ranging from no response, to attempted, to correct. However, in terms of its limitations the tests appeared to focus more on the mechanics of reading and writing rather than on the use of language and comprehension. The second survey indicated a national literacy rate of 81% compared with 68.9% in 1993, the accuracy of which, however, also remains debatable.

Mpofu and Youngman (2001) concluded that the lack of effectiveness in the existing adult basic education programmes is not simply a problem of implementation and resources; but rather a problem of conception. Hence they suggest that there is the need for a fundamental re-think of the purposes and modalities of adult basic education and training if the challenges of access, opportunity, and social inclusion are to be met. One of the main challenges therefore facing Botswana is to empower Botswana to be viable agents of their own development through successful human resource development:

“Not only are the people the purpose of development, they are also the main resource for development. So, Botswana’s education and skills development programmes must produce functionally global workers and citizens, and secure global competitiveness for Botswana.” (Republic of Botswana/United Nations, 2004 p. 15).

Botswana’s education policy makers have therefore been charged with the responsibility of building human resource potential and of forging the link between education, employment and poverty. There is a concerted effort therefore to ensure that education and training meets the requirements of the labour market and contributes towards increasing employment levels and poverty reduction. The Government has made considerable progress to date in terms of participation with almost universal

primary education being achieved. The United Nations recognises however that much still needs to be done to: “...equip Botswana with functional literacy – the tools to successfully negotiate their way through life in a modern economy” (Republic of Botswana/United Nations, 2004 p.23). Botswana has been conservative in responding to these trends, resulting in the country entering the new millennium facing a ‘crisis’ of both social and economic instability, with increasing youth unemployment and growing concerns that its workforce is unable to meet existing and future skills demands (Narayana, Siphambe and Bakwena, 2005).

The vocational education and training sector has subsequently been targeted by policy makers in an attempt to build human and social capital to help solve both its economic and social problems (DVET, 1992):

CHAPTER THREE

Theoretical perspectives on human and social capital and the role of adult basic education and training

Introduction

Chapter three presents some theoretical perspectives on the role of human resource development (HRD) and its links with human and social capital. The chapter also discusses to what extent adult basic education and training (ABET) can contribute towards the accretion of human and social capital and provide theoretical insight to the second research question: *To what extent can ABVET contribute towards the development of human and social capital?*

This chapter begins with a brief discussion about the concept of human resource development and its links with human and social capital. This is followed by how developing countries in particular, with the aid of international development agencies are trying to achieve their national development objectives and what role human and social capital takes in this process. Finally, an analysis of the extent to which others have identified a link between adult basic education and training and the development of human and social capital will be discussed.

Towards a definition of Human Resource Development

My attempt to ascertain a clear definition of Human Resource Development (HRD) was thwarted by a plethora of divergent definitions in the literature. The bemusing array of theories about the purpose and concept of HRD has caused confusion and frustration, not only in this study, but also amongst others such as McLean and McLean (2001) and McGoldrick, Stewart and Watson (2002) who state that:

“Recent attempts to define the concept of human resource development (HRD) by academics, researchers and practitioners are proving frustrating, elusive and confusing. This suggests that HRD has not established a distinctive, conceptual or theoretical identity.” (p.2)

McGoldrick, Stewart and Watson go onto to conclude that:

“There is no consensus over the conceptual theoretical identity of HRD and related purpose. The purpose is contingent upon both the philosophical and theoretical perspectives.” (2002, p.6)

Indeed Swanson (2001) argues that a common definition of HRD cannot be achieved as its nature is dependent upon its unique perceived purpose and stage of a nation’s maturation. This notion was supported by research undertaken by McLean and McLean (2001) who tried to demystify HRD in a global context:

“The definition of HRD is influenced by a country’s value system, so we see the emphasis on performance in the US context, while religion and community predominate as influences in Thailand. Definitions vary according to the point in the life-cycle of the field (US, UK, Thailand vs. Russia, China), which is, in part, linked to form or growth in the economy. While HRD is not mature in any cultural context, it is generally perceived to be most mature in the US, while it is still in an emerging state in many countries.” (p. 322)

Whilst McLean and McLean do not detail these factors, it is helpful at this stage to contextualise HRD in Botswana. In 2006, the Government commissioned a consultancy to formulate a National Human Resource Development Strategy (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2006a). Based on consultation with key stakeholders, the final report described the importance of HRD and in so doing, gave Botswana its first HRD definition:

“Human resource development is vital for a number of reasons. It is now globally recognised as the means to a competitive, sustained and vibrant economic development which in turn is linked to better jobs for a majority of the population, resulting in the overall advancement of society and better lives for individual members of society. It is about ensuring people have the critical capacities to realise their potentials. This is in order for them to lead full and productive lives that are of benefit to themselves as individuals, the family structures which they support, the communities in which they live, the society which they are part of and the global milieu with which they interact. It is about what people can do with their lives to improve their personal well being and what they can do for others and the future generations that will come after them. It is about building a society that not only prioritises human resource development but more fundamentally places people at the centre of national strategies.” (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2006a, p. 13)

It is evident from this extract that Botswana places HRD central to sustained economic development and social inclusion. At the same time, it recognises the need to realise the potential of the ‘individual’ for the greater good of others, also referred to as ‘Botho’, this is one of the main tenets of Motswana (singular for a citizen of Botswana) culture:

“The concept of a person who has a well-rounded character, who is well mannered, courteous and disciplined, and realises his or her full potential both as an individual and as a part of the community to which he or she belongs.” (Republic of Botswana, 1997, p.2)

This also highlights the importance Botswana gives to the relationship between the aspirations of the individual and the community, a theme in common with McLean and McLean’s emerging definition of HRD:

“Human resource development is any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults’ work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation or, ultimately, the whole of humanity.” (2001, p. 322)

Whilst it is beyond the scope of this thesis to debate the definitions of HRD. What the definitions have in common, however, is a focus on the direct and indirect beneficiaries of HRD and the effects it may bring about. The definitions fall short, however, of identifying what the *outcomes* of HRD should be and what the individual should know or be able to do to achieve individual and/or national objectives. In an endeavour to find answers to these questions, I turned instead towards the definition of ‘human capital’.

Human capital

Early definitions of human capital by Adam Smith in 1776 focused on the importance of skills development to increase the wealth for society as well as for the individual. In the 1960s, Shultz (1960) and Becker (1964) expanded the perception of ‘human capital’ suggesting that it is developed in individuals through personal investment in education and training. Much later Laroché, Merette and Ruggeri (1999) suggested that human capital is more than skills development, being the aggregation of investment in

education, health, on the job training and migration, the accumulation of which enhances an individual's productivity, typically manifested by increased earnings:

“...we define human capital as the aggregation of the innate abilities and the knowledge and skills that individuals acquire and develop throughout their lifetime. Innate abilities represent an individual's intrinsic potential to acquire skills. They can be defined as all physical, intellectual and psychological capacities that individuals possess at their time of birth...Acquired skills represent the actualization of this potential...These skills are acquired over one's lifetime through intergenerational transfers of knowledge, personal contacts, work experience, on-the-job training, education and socialization.”
(p.89)

Advocates of human capital propose that investment in education and training not only benefits the individual, but also society as a whole (Engelbrecht, 2003; Psacharopoulos, 1981). Many studies have found a strong positive correlation between education, human capital and levels of social and economic performance: OECD 2001; Oyelaran-Oyeyinka and Barclay, 2004; Laroche, Merette and Ruggeri, 1999; Hartog, 2001 and Engelbrecht, 2003 are but a few. Indeed, based on extensive empirical studies in thirty two countries, Psacharopoulos claimed that increased human capital enables the individual to procure employment and improve their income levels, which in turn benefits society as levels of productivity and rates of return i.e. the yield of investment in terms of benefits compared with the cost of education and training, are increased. The benefits of human capital are succinctly identified by Johanson and Adams (2004) as follows:

“Development of human capital not only leads to higher worker productivity but also facilitates the absorption of workers into the economy and improves their job mobility...Investment in human capital also enhances business and technological innovation by improving the capacity of workers to apply and adapt existing knowledge and processes as well as make new discoveries.”
(p. 16)

Human capital theory, however, appears to view the labour market as a neutral bystander, failing to recognise the symbolic value of credentials as a by-product of education to sort people into a hierarchy of desirability where ‘more of’ is better, rather than the ‘quality of less’ (Wolf, 1999). In other words, the expansion of higher level qualifications appears to be better than the expansion of good quality qualifications at a lower level.

Both the New Right and Modernists agree that economic prosperity increasingly depends on a nation's ability to develop its human capital and utilise the skills and knowledge of its workforce (Levitas, 1986, Habermas, 1987). Carnoy and Rhoten (2002) go further to propose that in an increasingly competitive market, governments aim at gaining an advantage by differentiating themselves from their competitors either through the type and quality of the services they offer, or through the quality of their workforce. Machin (2001) remarks, however, that a key aspect of this has been the upskilling of the workforce as employers shift their requirements to employ workers possessing higher qualifications and skills which, in turn, is linked to the demand for improved economic efficiency and cost effectiveness (Brown and Lauder, 2001). In 1976, Dore documented that many modernising countries were experiencing a spiralling increase in qualifications and coined the phrase the 'Diploma Disease'. He argued that qualification escalation (a steady rise in the number and level of qualifications required to get a job) and qualification inflation (a relative fall in the currency of any particular qualification) was directly related to the nation's stage of development. In other words, when a nation begins to modernise, qualifications are used by employers (especially the civil service) for selection purposes and the level and quality of the qualifications often bear little relation to the requirements of the job.

This phenomenon was not identified by Berg in 1971, however, when he failed to establish a correlation between schooling and selection of employees, arguing that employers have only vague and unexplained notions of how schooling enhances skills and rarely analyse the accuracy of their perceptions. In the absence of detailed and extensive research on employers' perceptions and their behaviour in the selection process this notion remains ripe for further research (Bills, 1988).

In the context of Botswana, qualification escalation appears to be in evidence with a steady rise in the qualifications needed to get a job (Republic of Botswana, 2001). In contrast, there is no evidence that qualification inflation exists, but falling enrolment rates and high drop out rates in the national literacy programme (CSO and DNFE, 2003) and the repeal of the Industrial Apprenticeship and Training Act in 1997 and its related qualifications, implies a possible fall in the currency of these particular

qualifications. The causes of qualification escalation in Botswana seem to stem from the relatively small size of the market, a decline in the number of formal sector jobs and relatively high levels of unemployment (Republic of Botswana, 2001, Shipambe, 2003). As a response, the Government is attempting to attract investment based on a genuine belief that human capital will contribute to a high skill, high waged, magnet economy as discussed in chapter two. This resulted in a vigorous programme of educational expansion between NDP 6 and 9:

- Increasing transition rates from junior secondary to senior secondary levels
 - Expanding the number of places at the existing university
 - Building a second university specialising in science and technology
 - Expanding vocational education and training with two new technical colleges, two new colleges of applied arts and technology and one vocational teacher training college and four new rural technical colleges
 - Encouraging the opening of private educational institutions at all levels
- (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003)

An expansion programme such as this may however, fuel qualification escalation and inflation, flooding an already saturated labour market with highly educated potential employees (Dore, 1976). So how is Botswana going to avoid this problem?

The Government of Botswana adopted neo-liberal, New Right policies during the 1990s as a response to globalisation basing the country's development strategy on free enterprise, a market economy and national development plans, emphasising the facilitator role of government in the economy, rather than that of an active participant (Narayana, Siphambe, Akinkugbe and Sentsho 2005). New Right ideologists argue that to achieve economic development in an era of globalisation, there is a need to establish market forces based on 'survival of the fittest' with minimal interference from the state (Levitas, 1986, Ball 1993). Extension of choice in education and training provision, with institutions competing against each other, helps to raise standards and quality as people choose to attend educational institutions that offer the best opportunities. New Right ideologists argue that the economic needs of the nation will be met through

market forces, as people are more likely to make investment decisions in education and training that will provide them with the best rate of return. New Right advocates propose that the cost of training should rest squarely on the shoulders of employers and trainees, ensuring that they choose courses where there is a demand for labour, subsequently overcoming the problem of skill shortages and the promulgation of irrelevant training and archaic or inappropriate modes of delivery. Indeed the New Right suggest that market mechanisms will provide a closer match between the supply and demand for training, and hence greater efficiency and fitness for purpose in the allocation of labour.

Modernisers, as critics of the New Right paradigm, however, argue that this market oriented approach is contradictory and elitist, giving upper and middle classes a better advantage over the poor as the rich possess the capital necessary to make informed choices about their education (Lauder, 1987, Brown 2000, Collins, 1979).

This imbalance is aptly illustrated in this statement by Brown and Lauder:

“When education becomes a positional good and where the stakes are forever increasing in terms of income, life-chances, and social status, powerful individuals and groups will seek to maximise their resources to ensure that they have a stake in the game by whatever means. Therefore how the state intervenes to regulate this competition in a way which reduces the inequalities of those trapped in lower socio-economic groups must be addressed, not only as a matter of economic efficiency but also for reasons of social justice in a post fordist economy.” (2001 p. 187)

A lack of state intervention for the benefit of the poor was indeed the main criticism of the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) of the 1980s and 1990s which witnessed a polarisation of the rich and the poor, as the rich gained access to educational places and employment to the detriment of the poor (Stiglitz 1999, Lopes 1999, Atchoarena and Delluc, 2002). In summary, Pillay (2002) states that:

“In general... SAPs have discouraged the state from playing a developmental role, because of a misconception that government should not have any role in the economy other than the regulation of economic activities and the enforcement of law and order. In the light of widespread poverty, and high levels of unemployment and income inequality in most African countries in general and Southern African in particular, it is clear that the state must have a significant role in economic development.” (p. 3)

The crucial role of the state in economic development is also supported by empirical research conducted by Harper, Marcus and Moore (2003) who found that many children grow up to be just as poor as their parents manifested in poverty cycles. They established that ‘poverty cycles’ are perpetuated because of poor nutrition, time pressure and a lack of education. They remarked that policy makers must focus not only on economic development policies, but also social development policies. Harper, Marcus and Moore suggest that the poor will only be able to attain valuable skills to improve their quality of life if governments provide: relevant, targeted, good quality and affordable education.

In the context of Botswana, Modernisers such as Van Rensburg (2001) are concerned about ‘injustice’ in the country’s neo-liberal educational policies lamenting that:

“Botswana’s elite is more entrenched than ever today, some of them enriching themselves more than ever before from the country’s diamond-generated wealth. The education system is largely geared to reproducing the existing society, with children of the elite learning how to join their parents. In the past a good number of the well-to-do might have spared a thought for the deprived and given support to approaches to education that might uplift them. Very few of the better-off would do either, now.” (p. 129)

Indeed one of the key issues for Botswana’s neo liberal policies has been the rise in individualism and a closing in of ethnic groups (Nyamnjoh, 2002; Campbell, 2003), impacting on the cultural heritage of ‘Botho’ (Republic of Botswana, 1997). The original Botswana policies are founded on four national principles: democracy, development, self-reliance and unity with four planning objectives of rapid economic growth, social justice, economic independence and sustained development (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2003, p.56). Botswana however faces the ultimate dilemma: how can the need for increased human capital and social justice be balanced against economic realities and a seeming contradiction to the four nurturing pillars of

Vision 2016? To try to make sense of this impasse the characteristics of social capital may provide some clarification.

Social Capital

My interpretation of social capital is primarily based on the work of Coleman (2001) who defines social capital as a resource which consists of two elements: social structures, and actions within those social structures. I also agree with Coleman's proposal that social capital is productive, yet not completely fungible, inhering in the structures of relations between actors and among actors (p.81 – 82). In a similar vein, Bourdieu (2001) defines social capital as:

“... the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to membership in a group – which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectivity – owned capital, a ‘credential’ which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word.” (p. 51)

Furthermore, Bourdieu asserts that the volume of social capital an individual possesses depends on the size of his/her network and on the volume of other forms of capital such as economic, cultural and human. In this way social capital is gained through interaction within the family, community, the workplace and even electronically on the World Wide Web. ‘It’s not what you know, it is who you know’ (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000 p. 3). This notion suggests that increased social capital can be brought about through changes in the relations among persons that facilitate action which is aptly summarised by the World Bank (2007a) when it refers to social capital as the norms and networks that enable collective action. It enables institutions, relationships and customs that shape the quality and quantity of a society’s interaction, in other words: “Social capital is not just the sum of the institutions which underpin a society – it is the glue that holds them together” (World Bank (2007a). This notion is also supported by Coleman (2001) who suggests that social capital constitutes a resource available to an individual manifested in the social structures which facilitate the actions of individuals framed by social relationships. Similarly, the OECD (2001) defines social capital as: “Networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups.” (p.41).

The OECD (2001), based on the work of Coleman (2001) and Woolcock (2000), provide a useful set of social capital typologies for this thesis namely: bonds, bridges and linkages each containing its own set of advantages and disadvantages summarised in table 1. In my opinion, these typologies, acknowledged as being indistinct, provide a useful reference point for determining the degree of social capital on a continuum which can then be used to inform development projects such as this, which aim to promote the accumulation of social capital.

Table 1: Typologies of Social Capital

Form of Social Capital	Advantages	Disadvantages
<i>Bonding</i> involves close ties with family and ethnic groups	Social capital is built by bonding in families or other close social groups. It identifies and develops norms, values and social ties and provides a tight social network that benefits its members.	Bonding that is too strong may inhibit cooperation and trust with other groups beyond the immediate family or ethnic group. This may result in exclusion of others beyond the immediate family or scope the ethnic group.
<i>Bridging</i> includes ties with friends, associates and colleagues	Social capital built by bridging with primary groups allows for cohesion and stronger collective action across family or ethnic boundaries.	When a society's social capital inheres in primary social groups disconnected from one another, more powerful groups dominate to the exclusion of others.
<i>Linking</i> builds relations between different social groups	Linking helps to build social cohesion across different community groups and civil society and can result in more inclusive national development.	Linking makes social capital inherently political as the state takes more control over how groups operate and link together.

The desire to develop social capital and capitalise on its advantages is reflected in the considerable effort invested by the World Bank in the research, development and implementation of social capital as a way of reducing poverty. The World Bank (2007) highlight growing evidence to suggest that linking social capital is critical for societies economically and for sustainable development to foster a community's capacity to

work together, address common needs, promote inclusion and increase transparency and accountability. Authors such as Whiteley (2000) and organisations such as the OECD (2001) based on their own empirical research concur that the development of social capital brings with it benefits such as:

- Higher life expectancy
- Improved health and well-being
- Reduced crime rates
- Improved governance
- More equal distribution of wealth
- Increased innovation and enterprise
- Greater participation in the labour market
- Increased productivity
- Improved economic development

However, as can be seen from the disadvantages described table 1, I agree with Brown when he suggests that not all social capital can be considered a positional good (Brown, 2000). The collective benefits of social capital may only be realised when ‘bridging’ and ‘linking’ in particular are evident. Knoringa and Staveren (2007) are highly critical of the claim that social capital has a beneficial effect on the economy in particular. I agree with their argument that social relations are not always positive and neither are their economic impact. They stress that there are potential inequalities in social capital which should be highlighted more thoroughly in terms of the different dimensions and the context in which social capital development takes place, a notion also supported by the World Bank:

“To improve the chances of successful development initiatives, a practitioner designing an intervention would benefit from information about the character and distribution of social capital. Moreover, with better information about how prevalent and effective local institutions are in terms of their capacity, leadership, and linkages, it is easier to assess implementation risks and opportunities. In the preparation phase of a project, it is useful to collect baseline data to analyze the situation before project implementation. This information would be relevant to assess the development of the project and to measure the impact of the project.” (2007)

I concur, therefore, that the development of social capital in a community must be accurately contextualised and developmental; trying to move too quickly towards ‘linking’ social capital from the ‘bonding’ stage could, in my opinion cause refraction and resistance to change.

As a result, it is timely to discuss the context of Botswana, given my mandate to develop an adult basic vocational education and training project which aims to promote the accumulation of social as well as human capital. To really understand the context that embeds the notion of social capital in Botswana it is important to spend a few moments describing its history, for which reference to the work of Mompoti and Prinson (2000) and Nyamnjoh, (2002) is made.

Traditionally, the major ethnic groups in Botswana, called *Tswana*, were organised in villages according to distinct sub-groups. Villages were not formed of ethnically homogeneous groups but further sub-divided into wards according to kinship or ancestry. A ward constituted a number of family groups, most of whom would be related to the ward head, while others would be families from other ethnic groups placed under the head’s care. The arrangement of wards within a village was such that highly regarded wards were located close to the main ward where the leader or ‘kgosi’ lived and the ethnically poor wards were situated on the outskirts. As an almost inevitable consequence of ethnic power imbalances, subordinate ethnic groups were systematically impoverished, being denied the right to own cattle and access to land and water. Consequently, their livelihoods were usually relegated to economically and ecologically marginalised areas (Mompoti and Prinson, 2000).

Systematic impoverishment is still a major concern for some ethnic minorities in Botswana (Mompoti and Prinson, 2000). Stratification of communities according to ethnicity is not only visible in the physical set-up of villages and the social, economic, and political relations among ethnic groups, but is also enshrined in Sections 77 and 78 of Botswana’s Constitution (1965). In summary Mompoti and Prinson (2000) identified that:

“... tensions between different ethnic groups and the traditional consultation structures, on the one hand, and the Western liberal values underlying participatory methods, on the other. These tensions create obstacles for meaningful and effective participatory planning exercises.” (p.632)

Campbell argues, however, that the formation and development of Batswana tribes does not indicate previous early existence of xenophobic attitude or behaviour in the society and instead suggests that:

“... while ethnicity may be a significant feature in Botswana, it is not nearly as important as national identity. It may therefore be concluded that the level of xenophobia in the country is an effect of globalization on cultivation of national identity within the framework of a desire to protect the economy from foreign exploitation. In effect, though the pattern of xenophobia in Botswana currently is based on nationalism, the influence of distribution of wealth is quite substantial.” (2003, p. 103)

As can be seen from this snapshot, Batswana places an emphasis on close family and ethnic ties. Without conclusive evidence, however, I can only surmise that Botswana is still very much at the ‘bonding’ stage of social capital development. Family ties are strong and there is a great deal of pressure on young adults to do what the family expects. In addition, the economic challenges facing Botswana as a consequence of global and regional competition suggests that ‘bonding’ may be perpetuated and that ‘bridging’ and ‘linking’ social capital, where relations are built between different social groups for the benefit of all, will continue to be deficient. Tight cohesion amongst the more elite sections of society is in Van Rensburg’s opinion in danger of continuing and a tangible xenophobic attitude to foreigners who are widely regarded as threatening outsiders may be fuelled (Nyamnjoh, 2002 and Campbell, 2003). In my opinion this situation could potentially be compounded by Botswana’s push for citizen empowerment encouraging the growth of individualism rather than collectivism and a clear emphasis on the accumulation of human rather than social capital:

“Citizen Economic Empowerment is a socio-economic process through which Batswana are motivated to enhance their belief in self-efficacy, to improve their abilities to control their own resources, and to unleash their creative and productive energies to achieve sustainable improvement in their living standards. This will be achieved by improving citizens’ technical skills, their knowledge and their abilities to adopt modern business management techniques... Self-empowerment is the core of any real empowerment.” (Gergis, 1999 p. 15)

But can Botswana afford to view human and social capital as mutually exclusive?

Linking human and social capital

As described previously, the creation of human capital is achieved by changes brought about in individuals through education and training which develops skills, knowledge and attitudes that make them able to act in new ways (Coleman, 2001). Laroche, Merette and Ruggeri (1999), however, suggest that the accumulation of human capital is not only dependent upon schooling, but also an individual's innate ability that facilitates the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Innate abilities are:

“...received as gifts by individuals without any action or choice of their own, and they differ greatly across individuals because of heredity, parental decisions, and purely random factors...Since the number of skills individuals acquire through their lifetime depends partly on their initial abilities, this potential is an important aspect of the human capital concept.” (p 89)

As a result, human capital cannot be entirely separated from social capital as the influence of peers, institutions and social context also shapes the acquisition of human capital in both type and amount:

“Human capital also generates what can be referred to as social externalities. These externalities which include among other things, increased utility from living in a society with democratic institutions, freedom of thought and speech and more varied literary expressions and means of communication, enable individuals to live effectively in a society whose members share common goals....The collection of all these externalities has recently been termed social capital.” (Laroche, Merette and Ruggeri, 1999, p.90)

This notion is also supported by Lucas (1988) who describes the accumulation of human capital as a ‘social activity’ implying a direct link to social capital.

So **how** does social capital link to human capital? Like all forms of capital, all are not equal and as Coleman (2001) suggests, based on his research in American schools, social phenomena potentially impact on the capacity of an individual to gain other forms of capital:

“The effects of a lack of social capital within the family differ for different educational outcomes. One for which it appears to be especially important is dropping out of school.” (p89)

He goes on to assert that both social capital in the family and in the community play a part in the creation of human capital in the next generation: “Social capital within the family that gives the child access to the adult’s human capital depends on both the physical presence of adults in the family and on the attention given by the adults to the child” (Coleman, 2001, p.89). Coleman concludes that increased social mobility (e.g. rural-urban drift and the impact of HIV/AIDS in Botswana) is resulting in a declining amount of social capital being passed on from generation to generation creating the dilemma of how social capital is created by individuals who would not ordinarily be exposed to it, and potentially unable to benefit from its advantages? Furthermore, it has been argued in the previous section that increased competitiveness is resulting in the marginalisation of some sectors of Botswana’s population and stagnating social and economic equality within the country. It appears that in many cases only a small minority of the population are benefiting from ‘membership’ in the national economy (Van Rensburg, 2001). Balatti and Falk (2002) aptly summarise the benefits of social capital:

“That is, only through social capital are the skills and knowledge of human capital made available for the benefit of individuals, the communities, and regions in which they live and ultimately the society at large.” (p. 282)

It could be argued that the increasingly influential role of elites in advising government has thrust the issues of access to higher education to the very heart of the social capital debate. The elite in society will be direct beneficiaries of overt changes in direction in recent years in national development planning to finance increased access to higher education. This has caused major skews in the development budget priorities with rural development being the main victim (Republic of Botswana and the European Delegation, 2006). This shift in expenditure patterns has drawn unfavourable comment from the Head of the European Commission Delegation (Republic of Botswana and the European Delegation, 2006) in Botswana accusing the Government of moving the goal posts from agreed positions at the formulation stage of the Country Strategy Paper and the National Indicative Programme (Republic of Botswana and the European Delegation, 2001).

Socio-human capital - the role of international development agencies

Based on the discussion in the previous section it can be argued that the ‘right’ social and human capital when taken together can have an impact on socioeconomic development. As a result, the role of human and social capital development in assisting those who are economically vulnerable and socially excluded in developing countries now appears to be at the top of the agenda of most international development agencies (OECD, World Bank, EU, DfID).

In 2001 the EC concluded that due to financial and capacity constraints, many developing countries are perceived to be lacking in their ability to alleviate poverty. A major World Bank study on Poverty in Sub-Saharan African countries (1996) also concluded that in the mid 1990s less than a quarter of governments in the region were committed to poverty reduction. Indeed the increased demands for human capital came at a time when budgetary support for skills training in many countries was declining as a consequence of stringent fiscal belt tightening (Bennell, 1999). As a result, developing country governments were filtering what money was available to train mainly senior secondary school leavers for skilled occupations within the public sector with limited collaboration between the state and the private sector (Bennell, 1999). Bennell goes on to argue that training for the poor must be a part of government policies to ensure a greater degree of labour market equilibrium. Unfortunately many governments, unable to find money to promote human *and* social capital development at all levels may avoid commitment to the less politically empowered in National Development Plans. Consequently, countries such as Zambia and Nigeria rely mainly on a market approach to skills development with the private sector (the Botswana Diamond Industry is a case in point) predominantly providing training opportunities (Ashton, Sung, and Turbin, 2000). In an increasingly competitive environment, however, the private sector is also tightening its belt and reducing the amount invested on training (ibid). As a result, there is evidence to suggest in certain countries such as South Africa and Namibia that the state is being required to take a more proactive neo-market role (ibid) in the provision of skills development for all in an endeavour to reduce unemployment, mobilise available human resources, attract inward investment and promote social inclusion. However, a lack of resources and finance in particular,

may prove this goal to be difficult as projections are often based on economic growth which generally falls short of budget and manifesto projections.

The Lomé IV Convention, the European Commission Guidelines for Support to Sector Programmes (European Commission, 2003) and the World Bank in particular through the publication of its Poverty Reduction Strategy in 2000 aim to encourage developing countries to share responsibility for their own development by committing themselves to social inclusion and to achieving the Millennium Development Goals in return for financial support. In this way the international donor community has increased its leverage through trust and mutual commitment guided by accountability and conditionalities about reaching international development goals and reducing poverty. In its World Development Report 2000/2001, the World Bank suggests that developing countries and international aid agencies should focus their efforts on poverty reduction and social inclusion strategies that promote opportunity, facilitate empowerment and enhance security. Developing countries are now expected through participatory methods, to implement poverty reduction strategies that focus on three pillars: productive capability (inputs of labour, capital, technological and productivity); social capability (norms, values, trust, institutions, networks, human capital); and wellbeing (consumption, health, job security, community freedoms) as a precursor to budget support (European Commission, 2004).

In this case it appears that international donor agencies use leverage through careful choice of funding modalities to tackle poverty and marginalization while tackling systemic issues such as macroeconomic policy, fiscal policy and good governance. In this way donors can either directly or indirectly target projects and institutional initiatives in education and training that promote the development of human and social capital amongst those that are most vulnerable. Donors will often justify their poverty reduction interventions by reference to international agreements, accords and pro-poor protocols. Goal three in 'Education for All' (UNESCO, 1990b) 'Promote learning and skills for young people and adults', is particularly relevant to this thesis and was used in the background and policy section for the Financing proposal for the European Commission and Botswana Sector Policy Support Programme:

“Education is about giving people the opportunity to develop their potential, their personality and their strengths. This does not merely mean learning new knowledge, but also developing abilities to make the most of life. These are called life skills – including the inner capacities and the practical skills we need.

They must rather be modelled and promoted as part of learning, and in particular by teachers. These skills have to do with the way we behave – towards other people, towards ourselves, towards the challenges and problems of life. They include skills in communicating, in making decisions and solving problems, in negotiating and asserting ourselves, in thinking critically and understanding our feelings. More practical life skills are the kinds of manual dexterity we need for the physical tasks we face.

Some would include vocational skills under the heading of life skills – the ability to lay bricks, sew clothes, catch fish or mend a motorbike. These are skills by which people may earn their livelihood and which are often available to young people leaving school. In fact, very often young people learn psycho-social skills as they learn more practical skills. Learning vocational skills can be a strategy for acquiring both practical and psycho-social skills.” (UNESCO, 2007)

In summary, what emerges is a clear picture that international donor agencies agree that human capital development alone will not spur successful competition in the global economy. They advocate that human capital development has to be integrated with comprehensive economic labour market and social policies and programmes aimed at maximising a country’s human resource potential including the development of social capital to promote economic and employment growth (ILO, 2000).

Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training (ABVET) as a contribution to human and social capital

Chapter two indicated that a clear and consistent definition of Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) appears to be lacking in the international arena. Torres refers to this as terminology and conceptual chaos. She goes on to remark that:

“The (Adult) education field is characterised by a loose and even idiosyncratic use of terms. Old terms survive, while new terms emerge and are often juxtaposed... ‘Cleaning’ the field and agreeing a common terminology, wherever possible, is essential for communicational and operational purposes.” (2003, p. 35-36)

Differences appear to stem from the various interpretations of key words which are often used interchangeably and become problematic when it comes to reaching a

consensus about what adult education actually means. Apparent consensus appears only in the notion that literacy is at its heart (SIDA 2003). In 2006 the Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO) estimated that there are approximately 771 million illiterate adults in the world, a figure that has been challenged as an underestimation by the Global Campaign for Education, who estimate that this figure is nearer two billion.

A world-wide debate on what constitutes the nature of the literacy has taken place for almost fifty years with three main approaches to literacy education emerging. In the middle of the last century, simplistic conceptualisations were prevalent as a response to the emerging need for basic literacy skills during the decolonisation period of the 1950s. These early concepts viewed literacy as simply being the ability to read and write and do straightforward calculations (UNESCO's General Conference, 1958). This basic definition was further developed in the 1960s and 1970s with a new, work orientated approach to literacy launched by the UNDP and UNESCO. Literacy was subsequently combined with workplace skills, based on human capital theory and its correlation with economic growth. At the 5th International Conference on Adult Education in Hamburg in July 1997, an attempt was made to formalise what came to be known as 'functional literacy' by suggesting that:

“...literacy can no longer be simply defined in terms of reading, writing or numeracy, nor can it be seen as an end in itself. People must be able to adapt continually to development in science, technology and to the pressures for social integration, participation and democratization.” (UNESCO 1997, p.5)

The view that literacy needs to be seen as an enabling factor, rather than giving deprived individuals what they apparently do not have, is at the core of socio-human capital development: in other words, having the potential to engage individuals and communities in economic and social development. A popular adult education movement subsequently emerged in the 1980s inspired by Paulo Freire, who proposed that literacy could be used to bring about political emancipation and promote social inclusion. This notion was championed by Action Aid through a programme called 'REFLECT' (Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques), which purports that adults are empowered and emancipated through literacy by building the social and human capital necessary to gain access to work, further education and to break out of the poverty trap.

Evolving definitions of ABET have continued to result in growing emphasis on the application of literacy and on how adults use written information to function in society (Lonsdale and McCurry, 2004). In operationalising the different international and multilateral institutional arrangements the UNESCO World Conference of Education for All (1990) went some way to expanding the scope of literacy to match more closely the notion of adult basic education:

“Every person, child, youth and adult, shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs. These needs comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions and to continue learning...” (UNESCO, 1990a Article I)

In 1996, UNESCO published the Delors’ Report entitled: ‘Learning: The Treasure Within’ (Delors et al). This report made great headway in providing a definition of adult basic education which encapsulates both human and social capital in four pillars:

- *Learning to know*: Thinking abilities, such as problem-solving, critical thinking, decision-making, understanding consequences
- *Learning to be*: Personal abilities, such as managing stress and feelings, self-awareness, self-confidence
- *Learning to live together*: Social abilities, such as communication, negotiation, assertiveness, teamwork, empathy
- *Learning to do*: Manual skills, such as practising know-how required for work and tasks

In the absence of a clear definition, this description provides a useful starting point to link the notion of human and social capital accumulation to adult basic education and training in this thesis. This definition distances itself from the view that literacy and adult basic education are one and the same, viewing literacy as important, but only a component of a much wider programme which incorporates the development of vocational and social skills contextualised to the needs of adults.

Adult basic vocational education and training (ABVET) and the development of human capital

An apparent reluctance to invest in adult basic education and training appears to be a reflection of a lack research into the actual rates of returns, social benefits, direct and indirect beneficiaries and costs of such programmes which has left these initiatives vulnerable to criticism (World Bank 1995: 89-90). Nevertheless, there is a growing body of evidence to suggest that adult basic education has a strong claim to contribute towards the development of human capital. Multi-country studies show clear connections between literacy levels, human capital accumulation, economic growth and GDP per capita growth (Cameron, 2005, Coulombe, Tremblay and Merchand, 2004

). These trends suggest that reducing levels of illiteracy could maximise human resource potential. Indeed, research carried out by Archer and Fry (2005) suggests that basic education makes a powerful difference to people's chances of escaping from poverty by becoming socially included, rather than excluded and at the same time facilitating their contribution towards national development.

In the context of the Delors' report (1996), Delors asserts that any adult basic education programme should include the four pillars as stated above. Two of these pillars: 'Learning to know' and 'Learning to do' could potentially contribute towards the development of human capital in the following ways:

Learning to know is concerned less with the acquisition of knowledge than with the mastery of learning how to learn. People have to learn to understand the world around them, at least for them to lead their lives with dignity, develop their occupational skills and communicate with other people. The broader our knowledge, the better we can understand the different aspects of our environment. Learning how to learn encourages greater intellectual curiosity, sharpens critical thinking and enables people to develop their own independent judgements on the world around them.

Learning to do is closely associated with the issue of occupational training: how do we adapt education so that it can equip people to do the types of work needed in the

future? Here Delors et al suggest that we should draw a distinction between industrial economies, where most people are wage-earners; and other economies where self-employment or casual work is still the norm. In industrialised societies the knowledge component of tasks as well as services are important in the economy. The future of these economies hinges on their ability to turn advances in knowledge into innovations that will generate new businesses and new jobs. He therefore asserts that: "Learning to do" can no longer mean what it did when people were trained to perform very specific physical tasks in a manufacturing process. Skill training therefore has to evolve and become more than just a means of imparting the knowledge needed to do a more or less routine job.

Adult basic vocational education and the development of social capital

Based on a study of Adult Community Education participants in Australia, Balatti and Falk (2002) established that participants, by engaging in adult education programmes, managed to not only draw on social capital, but also accumulate social capital by acquiring the capacity to obtain resources held by groups that they had not been able to previously. Such capacity required the participants to access appropriate networks, build levels of trust, and share common norms and values among group members. The identity resources and knowledge resources developed through the programme provided the basis for developing the necessary social 'bridging' ties that led to active community participation. In cases of this kind, benefits flowed not only to the individual but also to the group and to the community as a whole. In conclusion, Balatti and Falk established that:

"Social capital is implicated in effective adult learning in three most important ways:

1. The processes of drawing on and building social capital are intrinsic to the learning process.
2. The processes of drawing on and building social capital are directly or indirectly implicated in realizing socioeconomic outcomes from adult learning.
3. The realization of socioeconomic benefits through learning is brought about as much through the learners' identity formation and reformation as through knowledge and skills." (p. 296)

Unfortunately, very few others have documented the impact adult education and training has on the accumulation of social capital, which is probably due to the inherent difficulties of measuring its development (Feinstein and Hammond, 2004). Delors et al (1996), however, describes two pillars of adult education which could contribute towards the development of social capital: 'Learning to be' and 'Learning to live together'.

Learning to be: Delors et al summarises learning to be as the complete fulfilment of the individual, in personality, forms of expression and commitment – as an individual, member of a family, community or a citizen. Botswana's National Commission on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1993) also asserted the fundamental principle that education should contribute to every person's complete development - mind and body, intelligence, sensitivity, aesthetic appreciation and spirituality. In other words, all people should receive an education that equips them to develop their own independent, critical way of thinking and judgement so that they can make up their own minds on the best courses of action to take according to the different circumstances in their lives.

Learning to live together according to Delors involves teaching people about human diversity and instilling an awareness of the similarities and interdependence of all people. Individuals should be taught to understand other people's reactions by looking at things from their point of view. Indeed, Delors asserts that recognition of the rights of other people should not be jeopardised by the way people are taught. Teachers who are so dogmatic that they stifle curiosity or healthy criticism instead of teaching their pupils how to engage in lively debate can do more harm than good. He goes on to suggest that teachers who forget that they are putting themselves across as models, may, because of their attitude, inflict lifelong harm on their pupils in terms of their openness to other people. One of the essential tools for education then, will be dialogue and discussion ideally through team work which could be perceived to be an important component of learning to live together. A new form of identity could therefore be created when educational projects are developed which enable people to transcend their personal lives and attach value to what they have in common with others. It is

important, then that education should set aside sufficient time and opportunity to introduce individuals to collaborative projects which benefit others in particular.

Based on this review of literature it is apparent that if appropriately designed and implemented, adult basic education and training programmes do have the potential to develop the human and social capital. The statement ‘appropriately designed and implemented’ therefore brings the writer onto the third research question: ‘To what extent can a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach frame a relevant, feasible and sustainable ABVET project for Botswana?.’

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

Introduction

This chapter justifies the use of a Problem Based Methodology (PBM) and a Project Cycle Management (PCM) approach to develop a project for an Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training (ABVET) programme as a contribution towards the development of human and social capital in Botswana.

The first part of this chapter justifies critical realism as my ontological stance and its associated epistemological implications. The second part of this chapter explains the choice of data collection methods used to investigate the relevance, feasibility and potential sustainability of an ABVET project responding predominantly to research questions one and three:

Research Question 1: Why is there a need for an adult basic vocational education and training project (ABVET) in Botswana?

Research Question 3: To what extent can a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach frame a relevant, feasible and sustainable ABVET project for Botswana?

The chapter also discusses the potential strengths and limitations of the research design with reference to its reliability, validity and ethics.

The Theoretical Paradigm – Critical Realism

At this stage it is worth discussing the fundamental principles behind the post-modern constructivist notion of ‘reality’. According to the work of Bourdieu (2001) and Schultz (1960) constructivists, as heirs to the relativist tradition, believe that reality is socially constructed and consider the main task of the researcher is to understand the multiple constructions of meaning and knowledge:

“People, unlike the objects of the natural world are conscious positive actors who have ideas about their world and attach meaning to what is going on around them. In particular, their behaviour depends crucially on these ideas and meanings.” (Robson, 2002, p.24)

Relativism maintains that there is no reality independent of human consciousness a situation appealing to some (Fay, 2000) because it recognises diverse perceptions of reality between people. However, Pring (2000) and Scott (2005) highlight three shortcomings of relativism. In particular, relativists believe objective reality is impossible to establish and at best the researcher can only interpret what others perceive to be real by assigning meaning to their experiences. Pring (2000) goes on to state that relativists cannot claim any special status to knowledge because they deny the possibility of knowledge being produced about the world that is not relative to historical and social events. Furthermore, relativists deny that reality exists outside an individual's conception and as such, dismiss the existence of other people's conceptions and any possibility of verifying one set of principles over others. Finally, Pring (2000) indicates that just because there is an infinite number of ways of classifying and dividing up the world, this does not imply that the world is in fact divided up in an infinite number of ways.

As a result, a more pragmatic view of reality was sought, acknowledging that people perceive the world differently and at the same time, recognising that these perceptions are not divorced from experience and that the role of the researcher is to try establish reality beyond the scope of what is known: “...at the heart of realism is the assumption that there is a reality which exists independently of our awareness of it” (Robson, 2002 p. 33). By arguing that social research cannot take place in a vacuum, the following factors play a role in shaping the perception of reality:

- The researcher's past experience, beliefs, value stance and the relationship with the participant.
- The context in which the research takes place.
- The participants, their experience, beliefs, value stance and their relationship with the researcher.

- The research process and how data are collected.

In this context the realist researcher plays a more proactive role than that of a relativist ‘interpreter’. A major drawback however, is that the evidence could be perceived to circulate around the values, feelings and beliefs of the researcher rather than the researched, thereby diluting its validity and reliability (Robson, 2002).

As a result, a ‘critical realist’ perspective was considered more appropriate for several reasons. Reality is perceived by critical theorists such as Karl Marx to be created by those who hold power and who manipulate the weak to get what they want. Sarantakos (1998) confirms this belief when he remarks that people, even though creative, are suppressed:

“They (those without power) are, however, restricted and oppressed by social factors and conditions and exploited by their fellow men who convince them that their fate is correct and acceptable. Beliefs in such illusions create a false consciousness and prevent people from fully realising their potential.” (p.37)

Fay (2000) suggests that critical theorists enshrine reality to be what individuals perceive it to be, shaped by their socioeconomic conditions; individuals are capable of assigning meanings to their world and then act to bring about change. Through critical research, it is argued that people are empowered to overthrow power by removing false beliefs about society and social reality, perceiving people as creative and compassionate and critical of the power system that dominates. In particular, social research undertaken from a critical realist perspective is advantageous in that: “It enables the social scientist to get below the surface, to expose real relations, to disclose myths and illusions, to show people how the world should be, how to achieve social goals and in general, how to change the world” (Sarantakos, 1998 p.39). Fay (2000) cautions, however, that the critical realist should not:

“... hide behind an illusory façade of neutrality to convince yourself or others that you are objective. Acknowledge the intellectual equipment that you bring to the study of others; be aware of the ways you change those with whom you interact; and make your assessment of what others do, explicit. But always do so in a way that is responsive to the evidence as best you can determine it, and be accountable to those who it is writing for and about. Seek out the criticism of others.” (p.244)

In this context, the development of an adult basic vocational education and training project would provide a platform for stakeholders with power to assist those without power to bring about change in their lives and engage in the labour market. In other words, this study is not intended to *empower* those without power, but to convince those with power, i.e. the policy makers to support initiatives for those less fortunate.

Issues surrounding the power base of the researcher, however, may place limitations on this philosophical stance given that in my role as a Technical Assistant I potentially maintain a degree of influence over the research and the researched (Cruickshank, 2004). This influence has been manifested in shaping the research questions, deciding who to speak to, what information to seek and by influencing what people say through interaction, who should participate and how in key activities in the research process. Scott (2005) describes this as fallibility in which he implies that actors observe the world from a fixed position (geographical, cultural and, more importantly, epistemological). He argues that there is no outsider's perspective that allows the individual access to complete knowledge. In other words there is nothing about the world which can be known for certain but it is this knowledge that takes us beyond what we already know that is worth knowing (Young and Muller, 2006).

Cruickshank (2004) and Fay (2000) suggest that critical realists can at best only illustrate how reality appears in the situation in which the research takes place. In this way, there can be no claim to objective observations and generalisability of reality; only subjective reflection. It was therefore necessary to pay attention during the research to the meanings, concepts and understandings by which the stakeholders including myself, perceived the world. It seems common sense therefore, to concur with Cruickshank (2004) when he argues that we ought to regard ontological theories such as critical realism as presenting fallible interpretations of reality. On this basis, the

next step guided me towards the relationship between the ontological theory of critical realism and the question of ‘what is?’; to the question of how we can know ‘what is’, i.e. epistemological theory.

Problem Based Methodology

Epistemological theory provides a foundation for the choice of methodology in this thesis based on the need to: formulate the objectives of the AVBET project; respond to the research questions and contribute to the literature on educational research methodology. It is therefore helpful to discuss the nature and limitations of educational research as promulgated by Robinson (1993) and Finch (1986). They claim that educational research contributes little to the improvement of educational practice because of a mismatch between educational research methodologies and practice. Robinson (1993) claims that educational practice should be viewed as solutions to problems that can be explained by inquiry into the problem that gave rise to them. She goes on to suggest that a Problem Based Methodology (PBM) is the best way of analysing an educational problem, identifying solutions and improving practice. She defines educational problems as a discrepancy between the actual and desired state of affairs, where the desired state serves as the standard against which a situation is described as problematic and as having improved. She proposes that to resolve an educational problem there is the need to change a negative situation into a positive one, so that the problem no longer exists. Clark (1995) warns, however, that problems can be perceived differently by different actors: there are those theories which practitioners employ to understand and resolve their problems, and there are those explanatory theories which researchers generate to account for their observations. This implies that it is important to use a methodology which identifies the perceived problem(s) and bridges the ‘perception gap’ between the researcher and the researched.

Robinson (1993) therefore proposes that researchers need to employ a methodology which conducts the process of problem resolution as critical dialogue with practitioners so that competing theories of the problem can be adjudicated. Kincheloe (1991) succinctly describes this as an attempt to capture reality through interaction, gathering rich information from a small number of respondents, approaching reality without preconceived ideas, or at least ideas that are transparent. The researcher’s aim is to

study reality using methods that work from the ‘inside’, analysing the actions and interpretations of others (Hargreaves, 1995 and Goodson, 1999). This links well with Hargreaves’ (1995) analysis of the concept of culture as a potential contributor to critical realism. He argues that school cultures can be considered as a ‘reality defining function’ often resulting from an earlier ‘problem solving function’, he states that scrutiny of practices may enable us to uncover hidden cultural assumptions that direct those practices. Clarke (1995) appears to agree with this approach suggesting that:

“In the explanation and resolution of educational problems it would be a foolish researcher indeed who discounted the causal explanations embedded in the practitioner’s accounts of their own practice. Hence, in the resolution of educational problems the maximisation of theoretical pluralism is to be preferred.” (p.4)

The work of Guba and Lincoln (1988a) also strongly asserts that the relationship between the inquirer and respondent should be collaborative, providing intense involvement of respondents at every stage of the inquiry for both validation and ethical reasons. Based on this notion, Angelides (2001), when using PBM established that: “...collaboration between researchers and practitioners may enable them to unveil and make sense of the deeper level of the taken-for-granted assumptions that control those practices.” (p.71). She also asserts the strength of using partnership as a research method in the classroom is its potential to develop understanding between the inquirer and the object of inquiry, understanding being developed using a two-way process in which values are shared, discussed and justified.

In summary, the core stance of PBM is that the purpose of educational research is to solve educational problems and that data collection techniques need to be matched to the purpose and context of the research and the needs of the researched (Robinson, 1993). Within this context critical realism is reinforced for several reasons. Firstly, it allows the researcher to work with a multiplicity of perspectives in the context of a perceived educational problem. Secondly, it makes it possible for the researcher to collaborate with respondents while reserving a private view as well as enabling the researcher to take account of structural constraints on respondents by actively seeking disagreements between relevant stakeholders and concurrently reframing theory. PBM also provides an opportunity for mutual consensus of ‘reality’ between the researcher

and the participants (Robinson, 1993; Clarke 1995; Swann and Eccleston, 1999). On this basis, research is aimed at providing collaborative qualitative data which, when used with appropriate skill and sensitivity to the context, might facilitate actions by educational policy makers to achieve clearly defined outcomes and improvements in the purpose and provision of education.

Critics may argue, however, that this type of data collection works at the micro-sociological level, ignoring the bigger picture, the value of generalisability and of being ‘soft’, highly subjective and context dependent, too vague and open to change (Carey, 1989). In addition, the methods by which qualitative data such as this are collected are less likely to make claims to value-free objectivity (Finch, 1986). Undertaking policy orientated research using a PBM therefore seems to present a dilemma: on the one hand, being unable to claim that the findings are reflective of the opinion of the wider population and objective; and on the other, wishing to convince policy makers that my findings are worthy of consideration. Based on an analysis of the literature in chapter three and the perceived need for relevant adult basic education and training, it comes across quite strongly that culture, opinions, experiences, values and interaction between relevant stakeholders, policy makers, beneficiaries and myself as a Technical Assistant need be embedded if this project is to be taken seriously (Fuller and Clarke, 1994). In this context, the Project Cycle Management Approach incorporates all of these factors and appears to provide an ideal medium for framing using a PBM.

Project Cycle Management

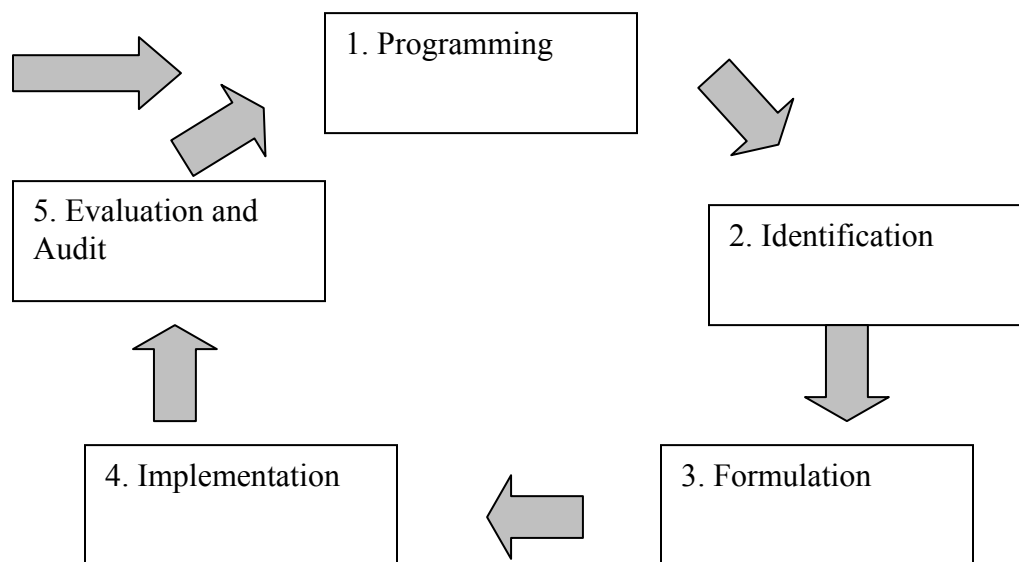
In 1992, the EC adopted the ‘Project Cycle Management’ (PCM) approach as its primary set of project design and management tools to improve the design and relevance of its aid interventions. Indeed, many other donor agencies and governments including Botswana, based on its good track record have adopted the PCM approach to formulate and design project proposals during the implementation of their medium term National Development Planning cycles (Grucza, Puszczewicz, Mitrofaniuk, Zalewski, 2007). The PCM approach is used to identify project activities against a logical hierarchy of objectives as well as the deployment of resources to achieve results during the life-cycle of a project. In short, the PCM approach helps both beneficiaries and

funding agencies ensure that:

- “Projects are supportive of overarching policy objectives of the EC and of development partners.
 - Projects are relevant to an agreed strategy and to the real problems of target groups/beneficiaries.
 - Projects are feasible, meaning that objectives can be realistically achieved within the constraints of the operating environment and capabilities of the implementing agencies.
 - Benefits generated by projects are likely to be sustainable.”
- (European Commission 2004 p. 17)

In 2004, the EC published a set of ‘Project Cycle Management Guidelines’ to support ongoing improvements in the quality of development assistance with the requirement that all EC funded projects follow the prescribed design principles. This study has taken the EC definition of a ‘project’ as being: ‘A series of activities aimed at bringing about clearly specified objectives within a defined time-period and with a defined budget’ (2004, p. 8). The EC goes on to stress that a project must have five fundamental stages as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1 PCM Cycle of Operations



With regard to this study, and the need to design a project for an adult basic vocational education and training programme, the first two stages of the PCM cycle: programming and identification are the most relevant.

Programming: For this project the programming phase was carried out by the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning and the Botswana European Delegation to identify problems, constraints and opportunities across the education sector. This phase also reviewed socioeconomic indicators, national and donor priorities and macro-economic factors, resulting in a response strategy to address sector priorities in the ninth Country Strategy Paper (Republic of Botswana & European Delegation, 2001). The Country Strategy Paper identified overarching objectives and sector priorities and provided a relevant and feasible programming framework of cooperation within which the project could be identified, prepared, financed, implemented and evaluated. The inclusion of the development and implementation of an ABVET programme as an indicator ensured its progression along the PCM pathway at least to the identification stage (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2006b). In this thesis, the programming stage was reviewed in chapter two and again in chapter five through an analysis of relevant policy and functional documentation. None of the data collected for this thesis were used during the programming phase of the PCM.

Identification: This thesis focused primarily on the identification stage and aimed to ensure as far as possible that the proposed ABVET project would be feasible, relevant and sustainable. The outcomes for change using a PCM approach are typically identified through participative modalities using a problem analysis activity and as such are commensurate with the PBM and a critical realist stance.

The primary objective of the identification stage is to discover the negative aspects of an existing situation and establish cause and effect relationships presented in the form of a ‘problem tree’. This process has the potential to tease out a set of relevant project objectives depicted as an ‘objectives tree’. The ‘problem tree’ provides the basis upon which a hierarchy of objectives can be built, aimed at converting what is perceived to be a negative situation of the ‘problem tree’ into a positive ‘objectives tree’. In many respects problem analysis is the most critical stage as it guides all subsequent analysis and decision making. If carefully executed, the ‘problem tree’ can provide a robust, but simplified version of reality as perceived by stakeholders (EC, 2004). The quality and type of input from stakeholders is therefore crucial to the quality of the problem

analysis (Grucza, Puszczewicz, Mitrofaniuk, Zalewski (2007); if this is weak, then the analysis will inevitably be weak. The perceived strength of this method, however, is that it aims to ensure the analysis of project objectives is firmly based on a range of clearly identified problems as well as promoting ownership of the objectives amongst stakeholders.

The requirements of the identification stage of the PCM subsequently influenced the choice of data collection techniques used in this study. The next section explains the data collection instruments used and how the analysis of data informed the construction of the ‘problem’ and ‘objectives trees’ and the Logical Framework Matrix.

Scope of the Data Collection

Both collaborative and non-collaborative qualitative data collection techniques were used to collect and discuss the perceptions of the stakeholders from a critical realist stand point. The choice of data collection instruments was also influenced by the characteristics and nature of the intended respondents. As a result, a detailed stakeholder analysis was conducted to ensure that relevant parties were consulted and data collection instruments designed and applied appropriately.

Stakeholder analysis

A stakeholder can be defined as any individual, community, group or organisation with an interest in the outcome of the project, either as a result of being affected positively or negatively, or by being able to influence the outcomes of the project in a positive or negative way. The Department for International Development (DFID) defines three typologies of stakeholders in a document entitled: ‘Tools for Development’ (2002):

- *Key Stakeholders:* Those who significantly influence, or who are important to the success of a project.
- *Primary Stakeholders:* Those who are ultimately affected by a project, either as beneficiaries, disbeneficiaries or indirect beneficiaries.

- *Secondary Stakeholders:* All others with an interest or intermediary role in the project.

To try and ensure that all relevant parties were considered, the stakeholder analysis was carried out as follows:

1. An initial brainstorm of potential stakeholders carried out by myself, verified and expanded by methods two and three below.
2. Participation in a national consultation workshop in 2004 on adult basic education which included over eighty stakeholders involved in adult literacy in Botswana.
3. Respondent interviews and focus group discussions to suggest other stakeholders who could be approached.

As relevant stakeholders were identified, a ‘stakeholder matrix’ (appendix 3) was prepared to map their potential role, influence in the project, and what data collection method would be the most appropriate. Identified stakeholders were subsequently categorised in terms of their potential interest i.e. to what degree they are likely to be affected by the research project, what degree of concern they may have; and their level of power i.e. the influence they have over the proposed project and to what degree they can help achieve, block or change it (Start and Hovland, 2004).

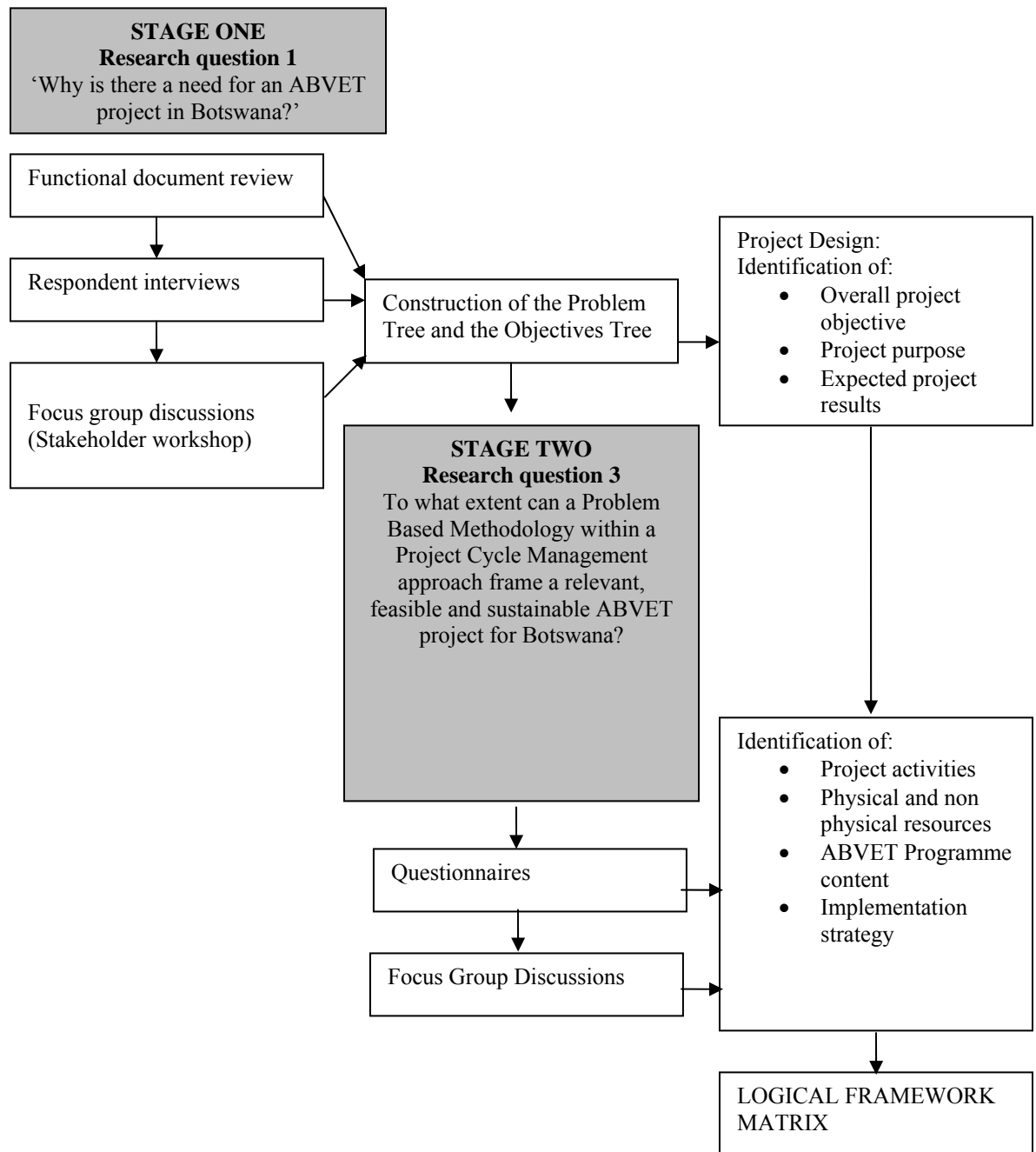
Key and primary stakeholders were deemed to be those with high levels of power and interest and important to engage in the project design. Senior Ministry of Education officials and educational planners are cases in point. It was deemed essential to keep these groups fully informed of issues and recommendations affecting project design since they had the potential to encumber progress at this stage of the project cycle. Secondary stakeholders were identified as those having relatively low levels of both power and interest in the project. However it was perceived that their views would be important to improve the relevance of the ABVET project and to identify lessons learned from similar interventions.

The stakeholder analysis was useful in categorising and analysing opinions and experiences. However, predefining and compartmentalising subjective impressions of their potential influence and power could result in their contribution being either diminished or exaggerated in worth. It could be argued, however, that this situation is almost inevitable in any piece of research as it is necessary to prioritise who will be consulted and why, taking into consideration time constraints and ultimately, in a political setting, an individual's ability to facilitate or impede change.

Data Collection Techniques

Data collection techniques were designed and assigned to match stakeholders and to take into consideration their potential motivation, level of power and interest. For example, collaborative consultation was deemed essential when the influence and power of the stakeholder was high aiming to ensure that relevant decisions were made. This section sets out to explain which data collection techniques were used and why in two main stages, leading to an explanation of how the data were analysed and used in the development of the ABVET project (figure 2):

Figure 2 Data Collection Stages



Stage One

Stage one of data collection was primarily concerned with responding to the first research question: ‘Why is there a need for an ABVET project in Botswana?’ and in particular, the identification of the target group and an analysis of the socioeconomic challenges facing the target group. The main output from this stage was to inform the development of a problem tree and an objectives tree which in turn would help to

identify the overall project objective, purpose and results for inclusion in a Logical Framework Matrix. Three main strands of data collection were employed: functional document review, respondent interviews and focus group discussions during a stakeholder workshop.

Functional Document Review

Functional documents were analysed with the understanding that they have the potential to reveal others' observation of reality (May, 1997). These documents included job advertisements, general education curricular, statistical returns, labour market analysis, Population Census, socioeconomic indicators and evaluation reports for the BNLP. By analysing functional documents with respect to research question one it was hoped that they would provide an insight into the views of other actors working in similar contexts on why a project such as this is important and what the potential benefits might be.

The functional document analysis was also useful to develop my background knowledge of the socioeconomic context of Botswana including adult basic education and training in particular, prior to data collection proper. From a personal perspective, as an expatriate, with a limited background in this area, it was important to establish how others had conducted curriculum development initiatives of this kind in the past and in particular identified the objectives and purpose of other adult basic education and training programmes. These documents were, however, used with caution bearing in mind that they were not directly consonant with the aims of this piece of research. Therefore, the ensuing analysis took cognisance of issues identified by Glover and Levačić in Wallace and Poulson (2003) namely: authenticity, intentions of the original authors, credibility, representativeness, and support for claims and meanings.

Respondent Interviews

Robson (2002) aptly summarises the usefulness of interviews in the research process:

“Face-to-face interviews offer the possibility of modifying one's line of enquiry, following up interesting responses and investigating underlying motives in a way that postal or other self-administered questionnaires cannot.” (p.272 – 273)

From a critical realist perspective interviews were an important way of exploring the opinions, attitudes and beliefs of stakeholders and through subsequent analysis, attempt to establish what their 'reality' is. Indeed, interviews were also considered to be the most convenient and fruitful way of collecting data from government officials who had limited time to engage with others and who may not be willing to work in groups with others below their rank.

Bearing in mind the nature of the interviewees and the adopted ontological stance, Powney and Watts (1987) typologies provided the best fit in terms of interview structure by fusing a range of typologies into two: respondent interviews and informant interviews. Respondent interviews appeared to be the most conducive to:

“Gain some insight into the perceptions of a particular person within a situation. Again the agenda might be tightly or loosely structured, but in this case it is primarily the interviewee who imposes it.” (p.18)

This particular approach provided scope not only to have some structure, which was important in this case as an inexperienced researcher, but also allowed the focus of the interview to be on the concerns of the respondent with the overriding philosophy to allow the interviewee to express his/her concern and interests without feeling pressured into answering a set of predetermined questions in a given period of time. The success of this approach, however, ultimately depended on the design of the interview, the interview questions and conduct of the interviewer. Indeed, Robson warns that the use of this kind of flexible approach calls for considerable skill and expertise.

Planning the interviews was carried out after the document analysis had taken place. This was to make sure that I was familiar with the overall aims of the research, policy issues, background, and terminology and what kind of information may be useful to collect. Skeleton interview questions (Appendix 4) were formulated to cover all relevant issues in one sitting, as it would be difficult to arrange a second interview with busy government officers. Questions focused around whether: the interviewee perceived a need for an adult basic education project and why; who they thought the project should be designed for; and what they thought the programme should contain. The procedure for the interview was however, open ended to allow free expression with

the questions being used to initiate or move the interview forward whilst simultaneously allowing the interviewee to respond in whatever way, and to whatever depth they wanted to. Unplanned probing questions were frequently used when a response seemed incomplete or raised other issues that may have been useful. Unfortunately, due to time constraints it was not possible to pilot the interview schedule, however discussion over the type and format of the questions was carried out with a DVET colleague and my line manager which resulted in minor revisions prior to use. The fact, however, that the interview schedules were not piloted may question the validity and reliability of the responses.

Letters requesting interviews with 'key stakeholders' were sent directly to the Directors or line managers in departments listed in the stakeholder matrix. The letter provided a brief explanation of why the interview was being conducted and its purpose. This also allowed respondents to plan possible responses and be more at ease with questioning. The task of participating in the interview was usually delegated to middle managers in the respective departments. This response was perceived to be an endorsement of a level of cooperation for discussion and sharing of opinion surrounding the ABVET project. Interviews were subsequently conducted with twelve respondents. Initially, it was assumed that they would represent the views of their organisation, however, two interviewees made it quite clear that their views were not representative of the organisation and should be interpreted as personal.

Each interview began with a short introduction into the purpose of the research, why it was being conducted, and how the data were to be used. Confidentiality was assured. Each interview was conducted at the respondent's normal place of work and lasted approximately an hour. None of the interviews were tape recorded to encourage a more frank exchange as their comments may have touched on sensitive issues at a policy level. Furthermore, my previous experience with senior officials informed the decision that it was not appropriate to use a tape recorder, a perception reinforced by Powney and Watts: "A person in authority, for instance, may reject the notion of being tape recorded and yet readily accept conventional note taking" (1987 p.27). The main disadvantage of not using a tape recorder, however, was the likelihood that important

information or changes in tone of voice may not have been recorded or misinterpreted. To try and mitigate against this, the interview was conducted by myself and a DVET colleague and structured so that alternate questions were asked. Dual note taking during the interview facilitated a more detailed recording.

Interview transcripts were written up immediately and sent to both the co-interviewer and the interviewee for verification purposes. In all cases, interviewees were asked to comment on the transcripts to check the reliability of the data and forward any other relevant comments. In all cases, however, no changes were made and no further comments proffered. This does not guarantee, however, that the data were completely accurate or a definitive measure of the respondent's views. Indeed, it is acknowledged that this approach was not necessarily ideal as:

“Our ability to recall events immediately after their occurrence is notoriously unreliable usually there are other events intervening between the interview and writing up so here is yet another danger of loss and distortion of data.”
(Robson, 2001 p.125)

Overall the interview data provided an opportunity to explore the opinions of relevant ‘key stakeholders’ and provided direction in terms of the types of information that could be collected from others and who this information should be collected from.

Focus group discussions during a stakeholder workshop

In 2004 the Ministry of Education through the DNFE organised a pre-feasibility workshop independent of this study, with the support of UNESCO appointed consultants to investigate a way forward for the revision of the BNLP. The workshop was pertinent as it aimed to identify the socioeconomic problems facing illiterate and neo-literate adults in Botswana and how best the Ministry of Education could address these problems through an extension to the BNLP. The workshop was attended by a broad spectrum of over eighty participants involved in adult basic education across Botswana. I was invited to attend as the representative from DVET and participated with the agreement of the UNESCO consultants, the workshop organisers and DVET management. Prior to the start of the workshop, agreement from the organisers was sought to use the key note speeches and the deliberations of focus group discussions for the proposed ABVET project and this thesis. At the beginning of the focus group

discussions I took the opportunity to explain my role and how I would subsequently use any information generated by the participants. I was, however, aware at this stage, as a relatively young expatriate, that this methodology may not have been ideal due to constraints identified by Robson (2002) who stated that:

“Maintaining the dual role of observer and participator is not easy; acceptance will be heavily dependent on the nature of the group and that interaction of particular features of the observer with the group. Variables such as age, class, gender and ethnic background can be important in particular circumstances.” (p. 317)

As a result, it should be borne in mind that the nature and quality of the data collected during the workshop may have been influenced by my presence and at the same time the workshop was not set up specifically to address the objectives of the ABVET project.

Analysis of data at the end of stage one

Data collected from the documents, interviews and the focus groups during stage one were subsequently coded, categorised and analysed to identify the target group, the socioeconomic problems they face and potential solutions to these problems. This data subsequently facilitated the drafting of a problem tree.

The problem tree (Appendix 5) was drafted using all three strands of data collected during stage one of the research to identify the socioeconomic problems facing the target group and their causes and effects. One core problem emerged that: ‘Individuals without basic education have limited opportunities to gain employment or enter further education’. This subsequently formed the core of the problem tree around which the possible causes and effects of the problem were discussed in more detail in chapter five. In summary, the problem tree provided a diagrammatic representation of the existing negative situation as perceived by the stakeholders. The problem tree subsequently provided the basis upon which realistically achievable solutions could be identified and illustrated in the form of an objectives tree (Appendix 6).

The objectives tree was created by taking the negative statements contained in the problem tree and directly turning them into positive statements and potential solutions

in the form of an objectives tree. To check the validity of the objectives tree, stakeholders were asked to comment on its structure and content. While the problem analysis presented the negative aspects of the existing situation as perceived by the stakeholders; analysis of objectives emanating from the problem tree aimed to present the positive aspects of a desired future situation. The PCM Training Handbook (European Commission, 1999, p.19) explains that the objective tree should conceptualise a “positive mirror image” of the problem tree, thus building up logic for the intervention, which would subsequently inform the Logical Framework Matrix.

The development of the Logical Framework Matrix (Appendix 7) was initiated by narrowing the focus of the potential interventions in the objectives tree. To achieve this, the objectives tree was presented to a section meeting in DVET aimed at addressing the following questions:

1. What intervention(s) identified in the objectives tree is/are most feasible and achievable in terms of constraints such as time, capacity and resources, both physical and non-physical available to DVET?
2. What intervention(s) identified in the objectives tree is/are most likely to bring about the desired results for the identified target group?

This section meeting resulted in the identification of: the overall project objective highlighting the broad development impact to which the project would contribute; the project purpose which aims to address the “focal” problem, defined in terms of the benefits to the target group as a result of the implementation of the project; and the project results which describe the services to be delivered to the target group in the Logical Framework Matrix. The main advantage of using a Logical Framework Matrix (LFM) is that it is a useful product of the problem analysis since it enables a visual presentation of the project as a whole. Once the project objective, purpose and expected results had been identified and incorporated in the Logical Framework Matrix, it was therefore necessary to narrow the focus of the research to specifically answer research question three in stage two.

Stage two

The main purpose of stage two was to continue building the LFM by collecting data to inform the project activities, the physical and non-physical resources required, and to anticipate the possible risks and assumptions that may impact on the project results, purpose and overall objective. Data collection instruments for stage two included questionnaires and focus group discussions.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires provided the most cost effective means by which data could be collected from a wide geographical spread of respondents (Oppenheim, 2001). The anonymity of the questionnaire may also have provided an opportunity for respondents to be more frank than would otherwise have been possible during interviews or focus group discussions. The main disadvantage of using questionnaires, however, was that they were not particularly insightful in terms of their scope to establish attitude and there was a risk that response rates would be lower when compared with other forms of data collection. The design of the questionnaire was therefore important to ensure that it was user friendly and that both descriptive, and to a lesser extent analytical data were collected.

Questionnaire preparation

Two types of questionnaires were designed, self-completion and face-to-face questionnaires, the use of which was determined by the nature of stakeholder. It was decided that face to face questionnaires should be used with those stakeholders whose competency in English may not have been good enough to independently complete a questionnaire, such as those who were unemployed or employed in unskilled work. In addition, it was not possible to identify and send questionnaires by post to those who were unemployed due to the difficulties inherent in locating a population of this nature. The main disadvantage of using this approach was that respondents were typically contained within a narrow geographical area as scarce departmental resources did not permit a wide geographical spread for costly one-to-one data collection. Self-completion questionnaires, on the other hand, were used with stakeholders who (it was

assumed) would not require additional language support. Furthermore, it was also possible to identify an organisational address to which the questionnaire could be sent.

Both the face-to-face and the self-completion questionnaires were used with primary and secondary stakeholders because the type of information that needed to be collected was mainly descriptive, seeking to establish factual information and basic personal opinion on what should be included in the ABVET programme. In all cases, questions were kept simple, short and jargon free. No questionnaire was longer than two pages of A4 and involved the use of closed questions and tick boxes for ease of completion. Only one or two open ended questions were used towards the end of the questionnaire to draw the opinion of stakeholders, by which time it was anticipated that respondents were aware of the issues, and motivated to tackle them. Each self-completion questionnaire had its own covering letter or in the case of face-to-face questionnaires, a crib sheet which explained the purpose and rationale for the research. Confidentiality was assured.

Time pressure meant that it was not possible to pilot the questionnaires and as a result DVET colleagues were asked to comment on their structure, content and layout. Only minor alterations were made prior to their use and it must be stressed that this is probably a major limitation of the research design which may have impacted on both the reliability and validity of the data.

Questionnaire Sampling and Distribution

Since it is not the intention to generalise the results of this thesis, it was considered appropriate that a two part non-probability sampling strategy would be used for the questionnaires. This was predominantly purposive, but also convenient. Purposive sampling was based on the stakeholder analysis, but convenience sampling was used with regard to the geographical distribution of the respondents and amount of time and resources available.

Self-completion questionnaires (Appendix 8 and Appendix 9) were administered to the following primary stakeholders:

- 30 out of a potential 720 primary school head teachers from the main towns and cities across Botswana.
- 30 out of a potential 204 junior secondary school head teachers from the main towns and cities across Botswana.
- 30 out of a potential 41 Brigades Coordinators.
- 6 out of 6 Technical College Principals.
- 166 employers from an indeterminate number of businesses in Botswana from the main towns, in all districts.

Higher sample proportions for the Brigades and Technical Colleges are a reflection of the relevance and potential impact of the project on these institutions as their core business is to offer skills training to adults.

Timing the distribution of the self-completion questionnaires to the primary schools, junior secondary schools, technical colleges and the Brigades was important to maximise the response rate. As a result, questionnaires were sent by post with a covering letter (signed prior to my marriage in 2006, hence the change of name) at the beginning of the term when staff were officially on duty, but not yet teaching. It was assumed that staff would be fresher after a teaching break and more inclined to complete the questionnaire. In total, 9 out of 30 sampled primary schools, 16 out of 30 sampled junior schools 11 out of 30 sampled Brigades and 6 out of 6 Technical Colleges returned questionnaires giving a return rate of 43.7%. This is a relatively high rate of return which may have been attributed to the timing, but also the relevance of the questionnaire and the project to their interests as professionals.

Timing the distribution of the self-completion questionnaires to the employers, however, was not so crucial. For ease and cost effectiveness the questionnaires were faxed to employers in the most prominent sectors of the economy with a covering letter using the National Business Directory. This procedure, however, limited the nature of the employer sampled to those who only possessed a working fax machine and who were listed in the Directory. As a result, the data cannot be deemed to be representative

of the employer population. The faxed questionnaires were kept short and provided an opportunity for busy employers to complete and return quickly. In total, 32 employers out of 166 returned completed questionnaires. As questionnaires were sent out, each one was coded with a number. When a questionnaire was returned, this number was checked off against a list. This system of recording allowed the opportunity to identify non-respondents which meant that they were not anonymous. Anonymity was not, however, guaranteed in the letter, which may have impacted negatively on the response rate. Questionnaires that had not been completed by the deadline given in the covering letter were faxed again. In the majority of cases, however, second questionnaires were not returned either. With a return rate of only 19%, a senior Technical Assistant in DVET commented that many employers may be suffering from ‘questionnaire burnout’ caused by a large number of new vocational programmes being developed in Botswana at the same time, each requiring questionnaires to be sent to a relatively small number of employers.

Face-to-face questionnaires were conducted with 29 unemployed adults (Appendix 10) and 21 unskilled employees (Appendix 11) as possible representatives of the potential target group. 29 Technical College foundation level students (Appendix 12) were also chosen for the possible similarity of personal circumstances to the target group. The size of the sample was essentially determined by the amount of time and transport available. As a result, only one day was allowed for data collection with each group, and the sample was taken within a radius of 60 kilometres of the capital, Gaborone. As a result, the sample size was small compared to the potential population and the data inherently biased towards a major urban centre.

The nature of these three groups warranted the use of face-to-face questionnaires as many individuals at this level are not always confident using English. As a result, a Motswana colleague from DVET, fluent in Setswana was asked to conduct the questionnaire on my behalf. All questionnaires were subsequently conducted and recorded in English. However, when clarification was required or confirmation of a question was needed, Setswana was used. This approach allowed for a degree of consistency; yet also allowed the opportunity for the interviewer to engage in dialogue.

It would have been better if we were able to have worked together to collect richer data, however, limited departmental resources would not permit this.

Overall, the main weaknesses of the questionnaires included a relatively small, biased selection of respondents and quite simply the fact that: “It is virtually impossible to determine whether or not the respondent is giving serious attention to the questions or regarding the exercise as a tedious chore...” (Robson, 2002 p.253). Nevertheless, analysis of data from the questionnaires provided valuable information regarding the characteristics of the potential target group and the possible curriculum content to feed into the focus group discussions.

Focus Group Discussions – The Curriculum Development Group and the Programmes Advisory Committee

Johnson (1996) argues that focus groups, from a critical realist perspective, have the potential to raise consciousness and empower, providing the opportunity for participants to say what they think without worrying about retort from supervisors or managers. Focus groups were chosen for their potential to facilitate participation and ownership, but also to collect a large amount of rich data, from several people at once. The use of focus group discussions in Botswana is particularly appropriate due to the participative democratic culture of the Kgotla as discussed in chapter two. Two focus groups were established at this stage:

1. A ‘Curriculum Development Group’ (CDG) made up of at least one nominated member of staff from each of the six Technical Colleges as the target institutions for the delivery of the programme. Individuals for this group were primarily convened for their expertise in developing and implementing adult vocational education and training curricular.
2. A ‘Programmes Advisory Group’ (PAC) made up of relevant senior government officials, representatives of non-governmental organisations and employers. The mandate of this group was to provide ‘independent’ advice on the relevance of the ABVET programme for the intended target group.

Members of both groups were identified as those who may be directly or indirectly involved in the design, management and delivery of the proposed ABVET project. They also had wide experience of resourcing and practical experience of project implementation. An official invitation from DVET was sent to the Principal in the case of the Technical Colleges, and to the relevant senior managers of government departments, non-governmental organisations and employers. Members of both focus groups, who ultimately attended, were nominated by line managers and it was therefore not possible to predetermine whether respondents were volunteers in this process. Each focus group consisted of ten members and all were briefed by letter prior to the initial meeting to encourage participants to think about their personal value stance and facilitate discussion.

The focus group discussions were structured with an agenda and were designed to discuss data collected from other stakeholders, elicit opinion on what participants thought the proposed programme should contain and how best the proposed project should be implemented. In addition, the focus groups had the added benefit of raising awareness amongst other 'key' stakeholders and of developing an initial sense of ownership in the conception of the project to guide the ABVET project's design and implementation. They also provided an opportunity to ascertain 'collective opinion' bouncing ideas off each other and broadening perspectives more than might otherwise have occurred using other methods

My role in the focus groups was primarily that of facilitator to:

“... generate interest in and discussion about a particular topic, which is close to his or her professional or academic interest, without at the same time leading the group to reinforce existing expectations or confirm a prior hypothesis.” (Sim, 1998, p.347)

In addition to this, I was at times, an adviser, counsellor, negotiator, arbitrator and conflict manager. One of the main disadvantages of this approach was that some less assertive members of the group were not always willing to share their opinions and in some cases, active encouragement was necessary. On occasion, issues were discussed with quieter members during the coffee or lunch breaks. Furthermore, where the group was homogeneous such as the CDG, there was a tendency for the discussion to digress

into a complaining session about more personal issues related to their teaching load, contractual issues or college management, rather than key issues related the project. Above all my relative inexperience in group facilitation such as this may have increased the subjectivity of the data.

A series of three focus group meetings with each group were conducted at a neutral venue. The first meeting was the most important to set the scene for participation in the research and to glean the thoughts and opinions of participants on the design of the proposed project and how it should be implemented. Dual minutes were taken by both myself and a DVET colleague. This approach subsequently provided verifiable evidence of discussions, agreements and disagreements. In addition, the fact that the same group was invited back for subsequent meetings allowed participants to reflect on the discussions, share their ideas with others and provide further ideas and opinions. Participants also had the opportunity at the beginning of each meeting to raise any additional issues from the previous meeting or add items of concern to the agenda. Participants were also encouraged to correspond by email, any ideas or concerns they may have had which would allow those who felt uncomfortable to contribute in the meeting to do so more privately.

Data analysis during stage two

Data analysis at this stage was crucial to determine the scope of the project. The use of a PBM allowed exploration of different perspectives and the understanding of relevant stakeholders. Hence, it was important to look for emergent themes as well as unanticipated themes, an approach that utilised both an induction and deduction. The purpose of the inductive approach was to allow the research findings to emerge from the significant themes inherent in the data which aided an understanding of meaning through the development of summary themes or categories (e.g. Miles and Huberman, 1984).

I did not have access to computer-assisted qualitative data analysis packages such as Nvivo and as a result, traditional coding methods involving coloured pens were used to identify key issues and create categories to which a text segment could be assigned. The

advantage of this was that emerging issues were less likely to be missed, and indeed, for such a small sample, it would have taken a disproportionate amount of time to set up sophisticated computer packages. Coding and analysis of the stage two data began with close reading of data from stage one. This proved to be challenging as it involved synthesising a large amount of information. This data was subsequently built into the Logical Framework Matrix (LFM) under the activities and resources necessary to deliver the identified project results. Further discussion on the contents of the LFM as it was populated with this information, allowed the focus groups to identify the potential threats to success which were subsequently recorded as “Risks and Assumptions” in the LFM. The exposition of risks and assumptions is an important facet of the PCM approach in that the researcher is entrusted with the responsibility of flagging up issues and factors which may jeopardise project success and also inform the decision as to whether to proceed with implementation of the project, or not. In practice a number of compromises had to be made when balancing the components of the LFM to provide the most logical, feasible and acceptable options in relation to different stakeholder interests, policy demands and practical constraints in the best interest of the intended beneficiaries.

Credibility of the research

Trustworthiness of the research for the policy maker is an important consideration (Young and Muller, 2006). If policy makers do not trust what they read, they are less likely to support the initiative and commit resources. Indeed it is worth considering that policy makers may only believe what they read when it ‘fits’ with their own perceptions of the truth or when there is other research evidence applied in the same context for the same purpose, clearly supporting the findings (Sutcliffe and Court, 2006; Start and Hovland, 2004). However, establishing the trustworthiness of a study such as this, presents particular difficulties when traditional measures of reliability and validity are difficult to apply.

Cook and Campbell (1979) define validity as the best available approximation to the truth or falsity of a given inference, proposition or conclusion. Robson (2002)

summarises possible threats to the validity of qualitative research findings as:

- Inaccuracy or incompleteness of the data. This could be caused by poor note taking, a reliance on only one method of data collection, unanticipated respondent reaction to the position of the researcher either giving false or misleading information or no information at all.
- Researcher bias in terms of imposing a framework of interpretation rather than by allowing meaning to emerge from the data. Researcher bias may also occur if their job depended on it. In other words the success of the project may result in an extension of Contract.
- Theory may also threaten validity in that the researcher may only seek data which supports their value stance rather than highlighting negative cases.

Reliability on the other hand is the consistency or the degree to which a data collection instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same condition with the same subjects (Kirk and Miller, 1986). In short, it is the repeatability of the research. It is important to remember that reliability cannot be measured in qualitative research and at best, can only be estimated by checking the internal consistency of the findings. This study relied mainly on the use of attitudinal questions which, by their nature are more 'unreliable' than questions which seek to establish facts. Oppenheim (2001) asserts that it becomes almost impossible to assess reliability merely by asking the same question in a different way.

Guba and Lincoln (1988b) also describe a number of factors which can undermine the reliability of qualitative research. In particular they stress that filters and selective perceptions imposed on the data can cause the researcher to hear certain things and ignore others, to see or read into actions or words things that were not intended. Misinterpretation can also occur either because of a lack of experience or familiarity or oversimplification of the situation all of which can lead to bias. As a result, I tried to take Oppenheim's advice by using a variety of questions and methods to ascertain as reliable an opinion as possible and seek to identify a respondent's underlying attitude.

To enhance the credibility of the research, I attempted to improve its validity and reliability by applying the following tactics recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994):

- maintaining and encouraging a critical stance
- continually questioning the quality of data
- checking findings
- looking for 'deviant cases'
- being sceptical over emerging explanations
- asking whether the informants are representative
- maintaining a critical distance
- comparing the work with other studies
- following up surprises
- seeking feedback from informants

Triangulation was also used, defined by Cohen and Manion (1994) as: “...the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (p.254). By studying an aspect from more than one angle, different perspectives can be considered. During this study the following methods of triangulation were used:

- Investigator triangulation: colleagues and counterparts in DVET were asked to examine the data and the analysis. A group was convened to undertake a ‘Technical Quality Audit’ on the proposed programme structure and its contents.
- Methodological triangulation: was applied by using different data collection methods (focus groups, interviews and questionnaires) to address the same problem.
- Respondent validation: involved returning notes to interviewees and focus group members to check the accuracy of what had been recorded. Its main purpose was to reduce researcher bias and misinterpretation. It also provided the opportunity

for respondents to raise other issues not previously mentioned after they had reflected on the deliberations.

Ethical Implications

This study formed part of my contractual obligations under a set of Terms of Reference as described in appendix one. As an employee of the Ministry of Education it was ethically important that permission was sought and secured at two levels: from a senior government official and my Project Manager. At the request of the government official, a copy of the completed thesis will be sent to the Ministry of Education.

The delivery of the study was therefore inherent to my role as a Technical Assistant. I tried to ensure that everyone who was consulted was clear about the nature and purpose of the study and my role within it. This was achieved by explaining what the research was about and why it was being conducted. In all cases, this information was essentially the same and presented either verbally or in writing depending on the type of data collection instrument used. Confidentiality, especially for government officers was very important as potentially frank comments regarding the government's quantity and quality of educational provision may or may not be considered favourably.

As a result, voluntary informed consent, defined by BERA (2004) as the condition in which participants understand and agree to their participation without duress, prior to the research getting underway, was an important precondition of the consultation process. At all times participants were free to withdraw from the research. To avoid this as far as possible, however, steps were taken to ensure that all participants understood the process in which they were to be engaged, including why their participation was valuable, how it would be used, and to whom it would be reported. In all cases names have been omitted from the thesis so as to make it impossible to identify individuals.

CHAPTER FIVE

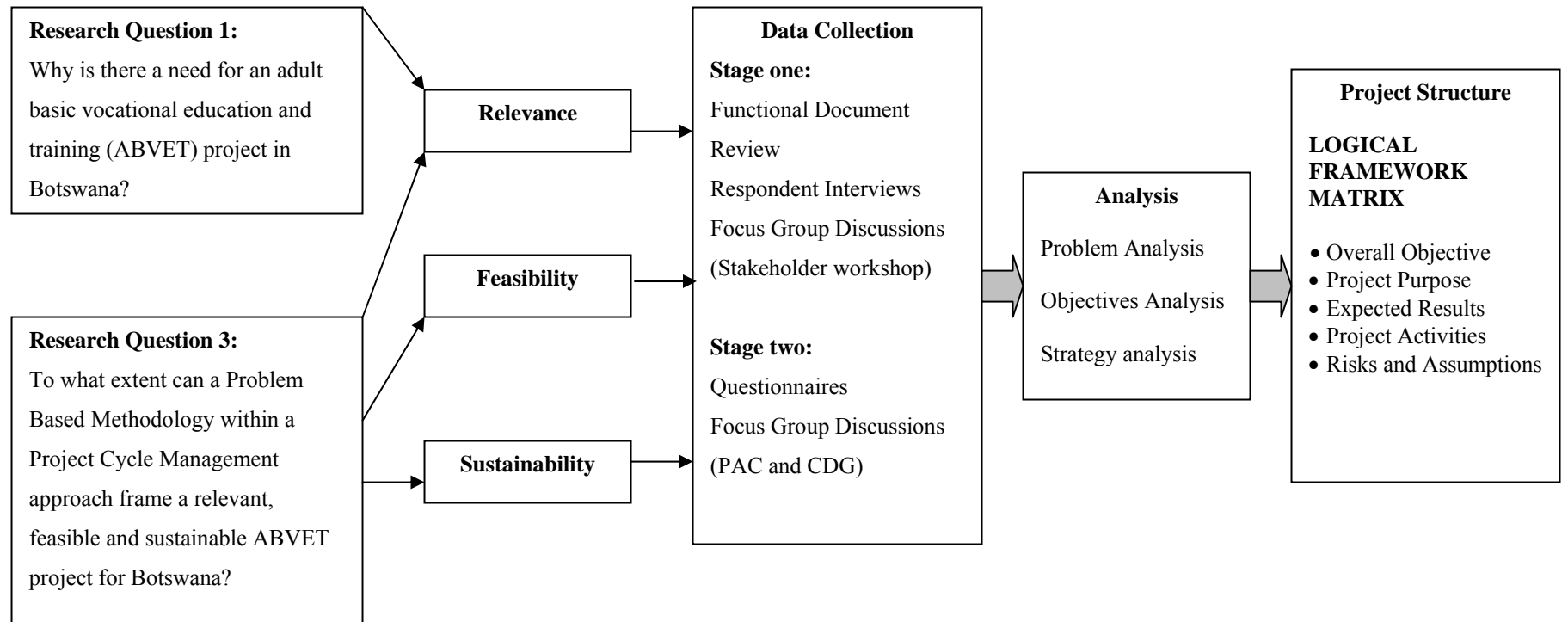
Data Presentation and Analysis

Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the research findings to inform the design and implementation of the ABVET project. Data collection was guided primarily by the need to address research question one: ‘Why is there a need for an adult basic vocational education and training project in Botswana?’; and research question three: ‘To what extent can a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach frame a relevant, feasible and sustainable ABVET project for Botswana?’.

Analysis of data aided the development of the project in the form of a Logical Framework Matrix (LFM). The LFM subsequently details the overall project objectives, purpose, expected results (based on the problem and objectives analysis) and the activities and resources (based on the strategy analysis). Associated risks and assumptions as threats to project success thread through all activities. Figure 3 illustrates this data analysis process and how this lead to the development of the LFM.

Figure 3 Data analysis and the development of the Logical Framework Matrix



Problem and Objectives Analysis

The problem and objectives analysis focused on the scrutiny and presentation of data from the functional documents, focus group discussions, questionnaires and respondent interviews to ascertain the *relevance* of the ABVET project. The analysis aimed to establish the consistency of the underlying characteristics of the ABVET project with both the Government of Botswana and EC development priorities as well as exploring its potential contribution to alleviating identified socioeconomic problems faced by the target group. The problem analysis provides an assessment of the cause and effect relationships of the underlying problems seeking to inform project objectives and the potential opportunities that the ABVET project could address. The main output of this analysis was the construction of a Problem Tree (Appendix 5) which later informed the development of an Objectives Tree (Appendix 6), culminating in the creation of a Logical Framework Matrix (Appendix 7).

The large amount of data collected and the word limit in this thesis meant that I was unable to systematically present all the results of each of the data collection instruments. Instead, I have only presented a proportion of the total data available. This does of course raise issues associated with the validity and reliability of the data however, as far as possible I have tried to present a balanced opinion and made my interpretations of the data explicit.

In summary, three problems commonly appeared in the data which the ABVET project could address and at the same time aimed to justify the project's relevance to policy makers in the Ministry of Education:

- i. The project could contribute towards poverty alleviation.
- ii. The project could contribute towards improved levels of educational attainment and human resource development.
- iii. The project could equip adults without a basic qualification with the credentials to compete in an increasingly competitive environment.

i) The project could contribute towards poverty alleviation

Though widespread poverty is on the decline in Botswana, it remains a major challenge to achieving its goal of poverty eradication as espoused in Vision 2016. Examination of the country's Gini Coefficient (Republic of Botswana and the United Nations, 2004) clearly demonstrates that while progress is being made towards alleviating poverty through a more equitable distribution of income; its eradication in the medium term is unlikely. The Gini Coefficient is an indicator used to measure the inequality of income distribution defined as a ratio between zero and one, where zero corresponds to perfect income equality and one represents total inequality. Therefore, a lower Gini Coefficient indicates more equitable income distribution. The most up to date data on Botswana reflects an improving Gini Coefficient of 0.414 in 1994 as compared to 1970-71 when the Gini Coefficient was reported as 0.574. This compares favourably with neighbouring Zambia that reported Gini Coefficients of 0.618 in 1970 -71 and 0.647 in 1994. It is interesting to note that the United Kingdom reported a surprising deterioration of income equality over the same reporting period: 0.261 in 1970-71 to 0.363 in 1994. (UNU-WIDER, 2007).

Despite efforts by the Government to improve income distribution and alleviate poverty through the introduction of social schemes such as the destitutes' allowance; safety nets such as these are considered by many as creating an over reliance on government welfare (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997). This also emerged as an issue in the focus group discussions during the stakeholder workshop, where one member claimed that:

“People depend too much on government handouts. They aren't motivated and it is causing problems in the rural areas.”

A Review of Anti-Poverty Initiatives in Botswana: Lessons for a National Poverty Reduction Strategy in 2002 (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning), largely blamed persistent poverty in Botswana on high unemployment and under employment. The review goes on to claim that limited capacity for employment creation due to a narrow, capital intensive economic base coupled with low educational attainment of the poor has limited their engagement in the labour market and the country's economic growth:

“There exists a link between education, employment and poverty. Provision of education that meets the requirements of the labour market, contributes to increasing employment levels and reduction of poverty. Limited education affects the ability of the poor to get jobs and access information that could improve the quality of their lives.” (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2002, p.35)

As a result, the review suggested that it is essential to help those in poverty especially those concentrated in the remote areas where a high degree of dependence on government welfare exists and illiteracy rates are at their highest.

In 2002, the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning also published the Revised National Policy for Rural Development which perceives human resource development and capacity building as the best way to address the structural ramifications of poverty, stressing that education and training should target areas of comparative disadvantage. Furthermore, the Study of Poverty and Poverty Alleviation in Botswana described in some detail how basic education could assist the poor to help themselves (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1997). It also goes on to criticise basic education policies and programmes for failing to link policy objectives and their arrangements to poverty alleviation and having: “... unidirectional perception of the relationship between education and poverty.... What seems lacking is an explicit recognition that education can alleviate poverty.” (p. 130). The study strongly recommends deliberate disaggregation of beneficiaries and education institutions for the purposes of targeting provision.

In a recent Education Public Expenditure Review, however, it was commented that the potential contribution of basic education and training to poverty alleviation through increased investment in skills training would be limited unless there is improved access to employment opportunities in Botswana:

“These trends in employment and unemployment bring out dramatically the need for job-creating economic diversification in Botswana, together with appropriate investments in education and training to address the lack of skills.” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p19)

The review also highlights the lack of focus and correlation between education and economic policy priorities in NDP activities and projects to achieve them, particularly in relation to targets for basic education and the quality of learning as preparation for employment.

A keynote speaker at the DNFE stakeholder workshop also highlighted the significance of this lack of synergy, stressing that policy makers must be clear about the difference between poverty alleviation and poverty eradication stating that:

“We are all focused on the wrong thing, we are trying to alleviate poverty, when in fact we need to challenge the model that is causing poverty. It is not just taking aspirin to alleviate the symptoms, we have to do something to stop it.”

The same keynote speaker went on to caution that without synergy between economic development and human resource development the needs of the most vulnerable in society will not be addressed:

“No matter how good your programme is, if there is no work in this country you will not get too far. If the economy of the country is going against the needs of the majority of the population, people will not get too far. What is the purpose of preparing people for work if there is no work. People are being prepared for work but the economy is going the other way”

These concerns therefore raise the issue that no matter how relevant the proposed ABVET project is; its potential contribution to poverty eradication will be limited and even detrimental if appropriate economic policies are not implemented concurrently.

In summary, the main findings presented in this section, in combination with the literature review in chapter two, contributed to the confirmation of the core problem for inclusion in the problem tree that: “Individuals without basic education have limited opportunities to gain employment or enter further education”.

ii) The project could contribute to improved levels of educational attainment and Human Resource Development

Successive development plans since NDP 7 have stressed the importance of developing Botswana's human resource capacity. Broadly speaking, whether it is educational attainment, skills development, quality of life issues, or the expansion of the labour market, it is acknowledged that Botswana has made considerable progress.

Notwithstanding these achievements, since the formulation of Vision 2016 in 1997, and consistently argued through a range of government plans, policies and reports, is the recognition that the absence of a HRD Strategy is a key impediment to achieving the realisation of Botswana's long-term ambitions (Republic of Botswana, 2006b). A Human Resources Development Feasibility Study undertaken in 2006 (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2006a) acknowledges that it is important for Botswana to raise levels of educational attainment if it is to meet the needs of the economy, to facilitate individuals to fulfil their potential and to assist them to meaningfully engage with and contribute to, the broader expectations and demands of society. The formulation and subsequent implementation of a HRD strategy in Botswana could provide a key link across each of the pillars of Vision 2016, and vital underpinning to a range of government, societal, sector and institutional reforms with increased value placed on learning being linked to economic and individual prosperity if it is to achieve the recommendations of the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) (1994).

The RNPE emphasised the need to primarily improve the relevance, quality and access to educational provision with the acknowledgement that:

“...the success in quantitative development of the school system has not been adequately matched by qualitative improvements. Levels of academic achievement are a cause for concern.” (Republic of Botswana, 1994, p.3)

The RNPE espoused that to prepare Botswana for the transition from an agro-based to an industrial economy it would have to invest heavily in its people and subsequently recommended that access to basic education should be a fundamental human right. Junior Secondary schooling is almost universal in Botswana and was extended from two to three years after 1994. At the same time greater emphasis was placed on non-

formal adult education aiming at improving the employability of its existing labour:

“A fully literate population is an important long term objective if Botswana’s national objectives are to be met. Literacy should not be pursued in isolation from other development projects as an end in itself. It is best acquired in the context of efforts to achieve greater productivity, health, or control over one’s environment.” (Republic of Botswana, 1977 p. 167)

However, despite sustained high levels of investment in public education with recurrent and development budgets averaging 8.8% of GDP (table 2), senior officials in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning are confident about the future sustainability of the high budget allocations to the education sector. (Republic of Botswana and the European Delegation, 2006)

Table 2 Government of Botswana Education Expenditures

	2000 (%)	2001(%)	2002(%)	2003(%)	2004(%)	2005%	2006%
E & T % of Total Government Recurrent Budget	27	28	28	30	29	30	27
E & T % of Government Total Development	12	8	9	7	9	8	9
E & T %Total recurrent and Development	21.7	20.3	21.3	23.7	23.6	24.3	22.1

Extensive research by UNESCO and UNICEF for the Ministry of Education suggested that a lack of quality and relevance in formal and non-formal educational provision is a factor often blamed for low levels of educational attainment. “It is in the area of learning achievement of the child that the study found reason for concern that the massive effort is not producing quality achievement” (Ministry of Education, 2001, p.144). Reasons cited for low educational attainment included: parental indifference; lack of parental education and support, teacher absenteeism and children dropping out of school. The Population Census highlights the impact of dropping out of school on employability, reporting that 70% of the unemployed in Botswana are under the age of 30, with the highest percentage aged 15-19 years:

“This is the age group that would recently have dropped out of either Junior Secondary School or Senior Secondary School and usually have no skills that are useful to the labour market at that stage.” (Republic of Botswana, 2001, p. 194).

The same report goes onto to state that:

“The economic consequences of leaving secondary school without a certificate are severe. On average, drop-outs are more likely to be unemployed...and tend to earn less money.” (Republic of Botswana, 2001, p. 384)

Drop out rates in table 3 illustrate that at the primary level, out of a total school population of 259,546; 2,913 drop out of school and never return. Desertion, characterised by pupils dropping out of school without reason, is cited as the most common cause; however, the Government falls short of identifying contributory factors. A Principal Education Officer from the Department of Special Education commented during an interview, however, that:

“Many children drop out because of poor parenting, economic reasons or children struggle to understand what is going on at school. This is especially the case for children with special needs.”

Conversations with government officers also suggested that desertion could be associated with children having to help on the farm or a lack of money to pay for the cost of education.

Table 3 Reasons for dropping out of primary school

Reason for dropping out of primary school	Number of pupils who drop out	Number of re-entrants	Number who do not return to primary education
School fees	111	25	86
Expulsion	5	1	4
Illness	172	170	2
Death	176	0	176
Marriage	1	0	1
Pregnancy	107	36	71
Desertion	4,652	2,217	2,435
Other	288	150	138
TOTAL	5,512	2,599	2,913

(Republic of Botswana, 2004)

Initially, the number of students who do not return to primary school appears insignificant. However, when added to the 4,375 students who never enrol i.e. the Net Enrolment Rate for 7-13 year olds (table 4). This raises cause for concern in the context of Botswana where population figures are low when compared to other African countries.

Table 4 Net Enrolment Rates

Population aged 7– 13	287,955
Enrolment aged 7 – 13	283,580
Number of pupils not enrolling	4,375
Net Enrolment Rate <small>enrolment of a specified age group divided by the population of a specified age group multiplied by 100</small>	98.5%

(Republic of Botswana, 2004)

While statistics on drop-outs are reported annually by the Central Statistics Office the report stops short at the quantitative stage and offers little in the way of analysis of how the problem could be addressed or what effects this may be having on educational attainment.

One of the implications for non-attendance may be lower levels of attainment in key assessments such as the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and the Junior Certificate (JC). For example, of those that completed their PSLE, the PSLE examination results for 2004 indicated that 3,496 pupils did not sit their PSLE examination and out of a candidature of 38,058 pupils, 7,494 do not manage to achieve a pass grade i.e. grade C and above (table 5).

Table 5 PSLE pass rates (2004)

Number of pupils enrolled in Standard 7	No of pupils sitting exam	No. of grades A - C	No. of students achieving less than grade C
41 554	38 058	30 564	7494

(Republic of Botswana 2004)

A similar picture is also portrayed at the Junior Secondary level. In 2004 the education statistics (Republic of Botswana, 2004) indicated that although transition rates from primary to junior secondary were high, at 97.6% (table 6); of the 158,839 pupils enrolled in Forms 1 – 5 in 2004, a total of 2,972 pupils dropped out for various reasons (table 7) and although 750 pupils returned, 2793 were ‘lost’ at this stage.

Table 6 Transition rates from Primary to Junior Secondary School

Standard 7 enrolled	Junior secondary Form 1 enrolled	No. of Form 1 repeaters	% transition from primary to secondary
41,554	40,592	27	97.6%

(Republic of Botswana, 2004)

Table 7 Reasons for dropping out of Secondary schooling

Reason for dropping out of Secondary school	Number of pupils who drop out between Forms 1-5	Number of re-entrants	Number who do not return to Secondary education
School fees	196	30	166
Expulsion	51	1	50
Illness	122	77	45
Death	71	0	71
Marriage	16	0	16
Pregnancy	1172	539	633
Desertion	1838	86	1752
Other	131	71	60
TOTAL	3597	750	2793

(Republic of Botswana, 2004)

Out of a total of 37 571 pupils enrolled in Form 3 in 2004, only 35 531 sat their JC examination and only 27 998 candidates achieved a pass grade. When the 9 573 pupils who did not pass their JC are combined with a total of 2,793 pupils who dropped out, it is estimated that 12 366 students did not attain their JC in 2004. A Principal Education Officer from the Regional Office commented on the significance of the JC by stating:

“If students do not have a JC, that’s it there’s nothing for them to do. There is a need for a second chance to ensure that they become viable members of society”

The Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis (BIDPA) in 2001 also suggested that those pupils who drop out of school or who do not manage to attain an

A-C grade in the JC could be in danger of being excluded from the labour market. This factor is also evidenced in a number of job advertisements published in local newspapers requesting at least a JC or a Primary School Leaving Certificate for even the most unskilled jobs (appendix ???). In addition, a report produced by an independent consultancy, commissioned by the Government of Botswana, found that access to further education and training in the Brigades and Technical Colleges almost exclusively relies on the possession of a JC (Republic of Botswana, 2006b). This possibly leaves many of those without formal educational qualifications with little chance of gaining employment or further training in an increasingly competitive environment. Indeed, discussions with the focus group during the stakeholder workshop identified that there is a gap in provision for a specific group of individuals without a formal educational qualification or at best a PSLE.

Until 2006 there was no evidence to suggest that any real effort had been made to address the school drop out problem. The publication of the ‘Formulation of a Financing Proposal for an “Education and Training Sector Policy Support Programme” and related indicators’ (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2004), however, raised the profile of school drop outs and low levels of educational attainment at the end of the JC and the BGCSE. As a result, in agreement with government policy makers, a proposal was made to include these problems as key performance indicators in the Education Sector Policy Support Programme. In particular, indicators ten and eleven of the SPSP monitor drop-out rates in both primary and secondary schools (appendix 14). The measure of performance: to maintain the drop out rates at a constant level of 1% in primary and 2% in secondary was achieved in the 2006 Joint Annual Appraisal (Republic of Botswana and the European Delegation 2006). It is important to note that Government viewed dropping out as a problem which was unlikely to go away; but recognised the need to monitor rates closely to avoid a worsening of the situation as a measure of achievement. The subsequent signing of a Financing Agreement for the Sector Policy Support Programme in 2006, and the inclusion of indicators directly related to educational attainment and attendance, demonstrated that the Government was prepared, to not only acknowledge the existence of the problem but also to take action. The Government also agreed to include an analysis of the data on drop-outs in subsequent

Central Statistics Office reports and a commentary on what should be done at the Local Government level to tackle the problem.

In summary the data from this section of the analysis have been incorporated as likely causes of the core problem in the problem tree in terms of: low levels of academic achievement; high drop out rates in the school sector; access to educational facilities in remote areas. All of which are identified factors which could contribute to pupils dropping out of school and low educational attainment.

iii) The project could equip adults without a basic qualification with the credentials to compete in an increasingly competitive environment

In 2001 BIDPA carried out a large scale survey of employers to ascertain their recruitment requirements. The final report recognised that Botswana had significantly changed its occupational structure and credential requirements during the 1990s. Indeed, BIDPA found that the number of formal sector jobs not requiring educational qualifications had reduced from 59 279 in 1993 to 35 274 in 1999, demonstrating a declining trend of approximately 8% per annum. A corresponding increase in the demand for at least a primary school qualification by employers was evidenced with an increase of 1.68% per annum. The most dramatic increase, however, was for the number of jobs requiring at least a secondary qualification. This figure increased from 99 258 in 1993 to 132 918 in 1999 (constituting 54.4% of all formal sector jobs) an increase of 4.99% per annum, suggesting that those without secondary qualifications may find it increasingly difficult to find work. This situation matched conclusions drawn from the Census in 2001 which stated that: "...the demand for a highly skilled labour force has transformed secondary school education into a minimum requirement for entry into the labour market" (Republic of Botswana, p. 348).

This situation appears to exemplify 'credential inflation' as discussed in chapter three, characterised by an increasing demand for higher levels of qualifications. Botswana appears, however, to have taken a simplistic supply and demand approach to manpower planning asserting that: by increasing access to secondary and post secondary education through improved transition rates, broadening the scope of

Vocational Education and Training and expanding tertiary education, the demand for skills and qualifications will be met (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning 2003, Republic of Botswana, 2006a). The risk in this supply and demand approach to credential inflation, however, is that those who have dropped out of the formal education system for whatever reason, or have not had the opportunity to gain a relevant qualification are likely to be marginalised and their potential contribution to national development wasted.

The problem and objectives analysis in this study explored respondents' views on what makes a qualification fit for purpose, have currency, relevance and be pegged at a level acceptable to employers. Data were collected from government officers during the interviews when they were asked to discuss the lowest level of qualification needed to gain employment and function effectively in society. In the majority of cases, the interviewees expressed the opinion that unless an adult was in possession of a JC, their capacity to secure work or engage in society and the labour market would be limited. Only one government officer, however, contradicted this by stating that:

“The lowest level of qualification needed is a Cambridge (O’ Level). This is because many job adverts for cleaners and drivers are stating a minimum qualification but many of the applicants have higher qualifications. Those with lower levels of qualifications do not get the chance to get a job. This situation is because of high unemployment and the fact that the job market is saturated with excess labour.” (A programme development officer at the Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning)

In contrast, a Principal Education Officer from the Primary Department suggested that the lowest level at which someone can gain access to further education and skills development opportunities was a JC:

“A Junior Certificate is essential because it is the lowest level at which someone can read, write and have the maturity to work efficiently and effectively and to carry on learning in the future.”

The above statement is interesting in two respects. Firstly, this officer seems to imply that primary schooling alone does not necessarily teach children to read and write in Botswana, possibly reflecting the lack of quality in the education system at this level; and that secondly, school leavers with an average age of sixteen, after ten years of basic education were grown-up enough to cope with the demands of keeping down a

job. This level of maturity was also an issue mentioned by a Primary Inspector who felt that:

“Much of the learning at the Primary level would be forgotten by the time they reach adulthood and they would not have the basic skills to get a job, gain self-employment or function in society.”

This statement appears to reinforce the view that primary schooling in Botswana is not very effective. A sentiment also supported by a Principal Education Officer from the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation who suggested that:

“A Primary School Leaving Examination does not provide a solid base for students so much of the learning at this level is forgotten, very few practical skills are taught at this level that would enable them to gain employment or start their own business.”

On this basis, government officers such as those above, appear to be taking a classical human capitalist (Becker, 1964) stance suggesting that primary education alone is not enough and that at least a JC is required to provide individuals with sufficient education to enter the labour market as discussed in chapter two. This opinion was also corroborated when the 29 out of 37 returned questionnaires from teachers and managers in schools and colleges across the country, stated that the minimum level of education required for a Motswana to function effectively in society and at work, or to enter into self-employment was at least a JC gained after ten years of basic education (table 8):

Table 8 What is the minimal qualification needed to function in work and society?

Question 1. What is the minimal qualification that an individual needs to function in work and society?		
Qualification	Totals	%
None	0	0%
Primary School Leaving Examination	10	27%
Junior Certificate	19	51%
Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education	7	19%
Other (Literacy Project)	1	3%
Total	37	100%

In contrast to the opinion of the education cadre, however, as many as 13 out of 32 employers who responded to the questionnaire stated that no qualifications were necessary to gain unskilled employment in their establishment. Only 12 out of 32 were looking for unskilled employees with a JC or above. One possible explanation for this was proffered in an email from a local employer who considered experience and personal qualities to be more important than academic qualifications:

“95% of people who come here looking for work do not come across as if they really want to work! We do not employ based on qualifications, but on attitude.”

Based on this opinion it may be possible that employers could be following Berg’s (1971) credentialist critique of human capital theory whereby schooling does not necessarily increase an individual’s productive capacity (chapter two). This implies that some employers are not necessarily interested in the level of education achieved, but more interested in the right attitude and a strong work ethic.

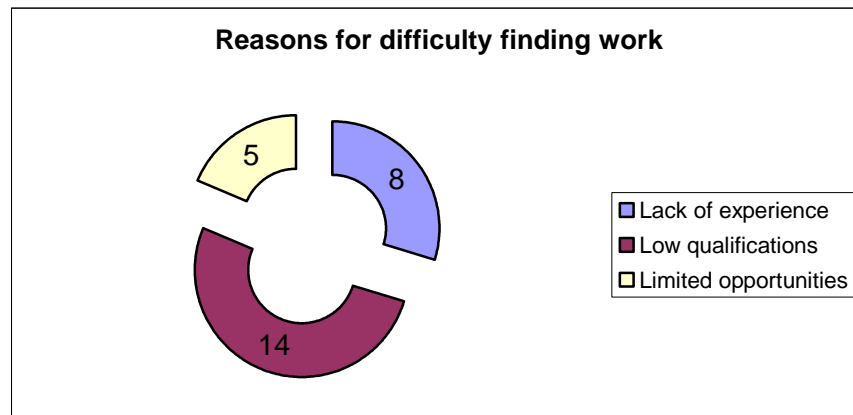
This credentialist critique of human capital theory was not confirmed, however, when job advertisements from employers in Botswana were analysed (appendix 13). In all

advertisements, except one, even the most unskilled work e.g. cleaning and general labouring requested the applicant had to have at least a PSLE with a JC being an advantage. The contradiction between what employers *said* about the need for qualifications in the questionnaire and what employers actually asked for in job advertisements suggests that qualifications are being used for screening (Thurow, 1975).

Screening such as this has possibly contributed to credential inflation in Botswana whereby the combination of limited job opportunities combined with an increase in the number of entrants to the job market holding higher levels of qualifications appears to be pushing up the level of credentials demanded by employers. In 1966, a primary school certificate was considered a valuable asset in the labour market. Today this has increased to a JC (Republic of Botswana, 2001). Analysis of a sample of unskilled job advertisements presented in appendix 13 seems to support this notion by illustrating that the demand for higher levels of qualifications (credential inflation) is being reflected in the job market with qualification requirements often in excess of what the job demands (credential escalation). It could be argued, however, that simply providing another qualification in the form of an ABVET programme is merely stoking credential inflation rather than meeting a genuine skills shortage. Conversely it could be argued that providing another qualification in the form of an ABVET programme will not add fuel to credential inflation if it is design to provide the relevant work related skills demanded by employers.

In response to the need to develop an ABVET project that is relevant, data were collected from respondents that would inform the content of the proposed programme. This was achieved by analysing the problems faced by the intended target group in securing employment. One Principal Technical Education Officer from the Regional Office indicated that many young adults are unable to find work because of low or no qualifications and a lack of work experience. This opinion also mirrors information collected from unemployed individuals, who said that their inability to find work was because of a lack of experience, low levels of qualifications and limited opportunities in the labour market (figure 4):

Figure 4 Stated reasons why the unemployed felt have difficulty finding work



Just over half of the twenty nine unemployed people that were sampled stated that low qualifications had limited their opportunity to secure work. Two did not respond at all. Of those that were sampled, 12 held a BGCSE, 13 had a JC and only four had no qualifications at all. This seems to support earlier arguments related to credential inflation, demonstrating that even those in possession of a BGCSE also find it difficult to secure work. A number of other reasons may also contribute to this situation: it could be argued that BGCSE holders may be looking for a level of job where competition is high; or they are not prepared to lower their expectations and apply for jobs requesting a lower level of qualification or a lower rate of pay or simply they may not possess relevant skills, knowledge or experience employers are looking for.

Indeed, this last summation was supported by one Principal Education Officer who suggested that:

“It is important to provide a route to further qualifications, as well as an opportunity to gain skills and work experience to break the vicious cycle of ‘no experience, no job’.”

Furthermore, nearly a third of unemployed respondents who completed the questionnaire cited lack of experience as the main reason why they find it difficult to get work (figure 4). Indeed, almost half of the unemployed that were sampled had never worked and those that had worked, had only done so in unskilled jobs. To help this target group through this problem, one Principal Education Officer, unanimously supported by the Curriculum Development Group, expressed the need to provide a curriculum that bridges the divide between education and the world of work so that a

student can make the transition more easily. This suggests that the new ABVET programme should include an element of work experience within its curriculum offer.

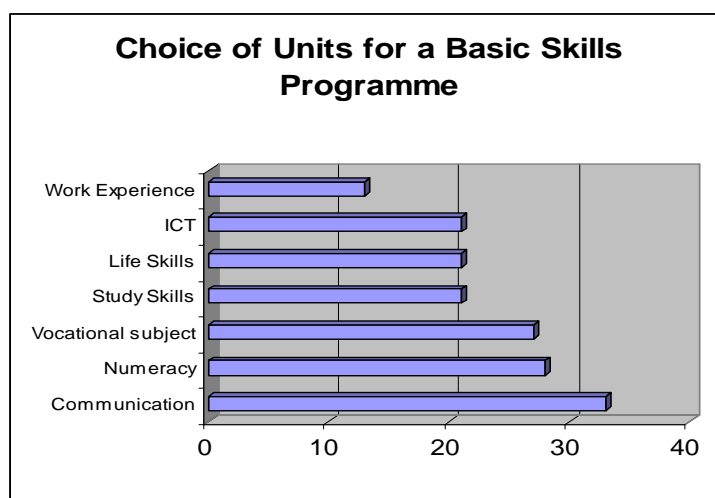
Another argument supporting the inclusion of work experience in the ABVET programme was contained in the HEDCO report (1998) which emphasised that employers' demand for employees with work experience would result in many Batswana being excluded from employment in favour of more experienced, qualified and cheaper, expatriate labour from neighbouring countries such as Zimbabwe and Zambia. Indeed HEDCO reported that employers benefit from using expatriate workers with experience, a more productive outlook, usually at a lower cost. One example of this problem was evident in a daily national newspaper where employees in the Ministry of Local Government complained to their Permanent Secretary that: "The government prefers foreigners instead of considering locals first". (Ramojela, 2007, p. 17). In 2001 it was estimated that 8% of the total formal sector employment was made up of expatriate employees (Republic of Botswana, 2001).

This is clearly a contentious issue that raises the point that the ABVET programme needs to focus on the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes that would make the target group more employable in the labour market. This suggests including subjects that are perceived to be valuable by employers. The views of sampled educationalists (table 9) and employers (table 10) seemed to provide some insight into what should be taught at this level.

Table 9 Subjects perceived by those in educational institutions surveyed to be the most important to an adult learner

Question 2. Rank the following subjects in order of importance for an adult learner, 1 being the highest.					
Rank	1	2	3	4	5
Communication	24	5	2	2	1
Numeracy	2	15	12	5	1
Information & Communications Technology (ICT)	0	2	6	5	9
Study Skills	1	2	2	10	10
Life Skills	10	8	7	2	5
Agriculture	1	2	5	7	2
Art	0	1	2	1	1
Technology	0	1	0	6	5
Geography	0	0	0	0	0
History	0	0	0	0	0
PE	0	1	1	0	2

Table 10 Subjects employers considered to be the most important to an adult learner



It is clear from table 9 that educationalists view communication skills, numeracy, life skills and ICT as the most important subjects for an adult learner at this level. In contrast, however, employers considered communication, numeracy and a relevant vocational subject to be more important than life skills and ICT (table 10). These similarities and differences are particularly important when it comes to curriculum design as it is necessary to take into consideration the purpose of the qualification and

the needs of the end users. It could be argued that educationalists identify life skills and ICT as important as they are focusing on the development of the individual as a whole, trying to equip them with the skills and knowledge that they could apply to any work related setting. In contrast employers may be more concerned with what the employee is able to do in the workplace which may explain their focus on vocational skills rather than life skills and ICT.

The identification of core competencies such as communication and numeracy by both groups of stakeholders however, appears to support the need for labour to develop transferable skills that will allow them to be adaptable, flexible, trainable and responsive to change. This notion was also supported by a senior Principal Technical Education Officer who stated that:

“Workers need to be flexible at the end of compulsory education.”

Indeed, based on the findings from the document review in chapter three, it is apparent that the ability to ‘respond to change’ has become an integral part of work activities and the need for a flexible work-force with transferable skills has been the clarion call since the 1990s. The majority of those consulted also echoed this sentiment and supported the new approach to developing a much stronger base of general competencies as the way of achieving employee flexibility and employability.

This sentiment, however, was not always shared by specialist vocational lecturers in the technical colleges who considered specific trade related skills to be more important than transferable core skills. Indeed after a presentation about the structure of the proposed programme to a group of Heads of Department in one of the Technical Colleges, one Head of Department remarked that key skills such as communication and numeracy were too prominent in the draft programme structure and lamented:

“I would still have wished for a better balance between key skills and vocational area units.”

This suggests that although vocational lecturers recognise the value of key skills they may feel that its presence in the curriculum is too prominent or unnecessary, especially if it is perceived to be taking up more time when compared with the vocational area. In

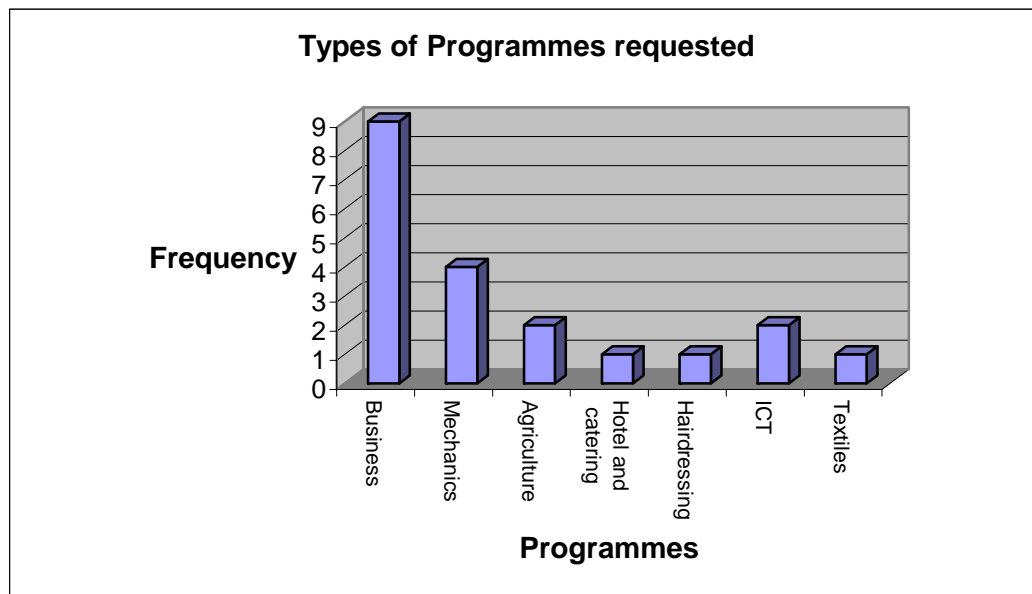
many cases vocational lecturers expressed, during the Curriculum Development Group meetings, that they did not see value in spending time learning core competencies and that the programme could be in danger of becoming too academic.

One Principal Education Officer from the Department of Non-Formal Education however, reminded us that:

“As experts we must remember the learner. What do they want? It should not always be what we think they want. There should be a balance.”

She went on to conclude that any initiative should provide the opportunity for students not only to develop their core competencies but also to develop skills in which they have a personal interest. Indeed, nearly all of the unemployed respondents consulted felt that they would like to go back to education for personal development, to improve their qualifications and future prospects of gaining employment. The majority also said that they would consider starting their own business given the right opportunities. Figure five illustrates those vocational areas unemployed respondents felt were important to achieve their personal goals.

Figure 5 Types of programmes requested by unemployed adults



When asked what subject areas they felt were important to help them obtain work, 12 out of 29 of those unemployed stated science, 16 out of 29 stated English and 13 out of 29 stated Maths. In this context, it appears that core competencies should have the same value as work-focused skills and be set in a clear work-related context linked to the personal interest of the student. This could also imply that many of those who leave school are entrenched in a traditional system of education where exposure to vocational skills development is limited.

Existing technical college students studying at one level above the JC and the proposed exit profile of the ABVET programme suggested that adults returning to education would also need to develop their interpersonal skills and build their confidence and self-esteem to broaden their perceptions of the world of work. For this to be successful a member of the Programmes Advisory Committee during a focus group meeting strongly recommended that guidance and counselling should be an important component of the programme. He went on to explain that many students will need to be shown how to learn again or even learn for the first time, and learning is as important as the outcome. Based on previous comments, it appears that learning is enhanced when perceived as relevant by the learner recognising their existing skills and previous experience. The learning environment would have to provide students with knowledge of, and contact with, current labour market situations, as well as helping to restore their confidence, self-esteem and develop relevant work related skills.

In summary the above problem analysis confirmed the identification of the potential causes of the core problem as: ‘Individuals without basic education have limited opportunities to gain employment or enter further education’ in the problem tree. Potential causes of the core problem were incorporated in the problem tree and included: a mismatch between labour market demand and supply of skills and qualities; school curriculum does not prepare people for working life; high levels of expatriate immigration and increasing numbers of unemployed with higher levels of qualifications.

This problem analysis provided the basis upon which the ‘Objectives Tree’ (Appendix 6) could be further developed. The objectives tree was developed further by taking the

negative situation as depicted in the problem tree and turning the causes and effects of the problems into objectives with a means-ends hierarchy and an overview of the desired future situation. The perceived strength of this method is that it keeps the analysis of the overall objective and future decisions firmly based on the problem analysis which in turn aims to ensure that the range of problems identified by the stakeholders are addressed. The objectives analysis again aims to ensure that the proposed project is relevant to the needs of the target group and in particular addresses the core problem. Overall, the problem analysis appears to provide sufficient interim justification for an ABVET project, supported by the commitment through the 9th EDF SPSP Financing Agreement (SPSP Indicator no. 9, Appendix 14). This analytical stage contributed to defining the scope of the project including: the project Overall Objective, Project Purpose and expected Results in the form of the Intervention Logic in the Logical Framework Matrix (table 11).

Table 11 Intervention Logic for the Logical Framework Matrix

	<i>Intervention Logic</i>
Overall Objectives	Employment levels amongst those with low or no formal qualifications improved.
Project Purpose	To develop the relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes of individuals without basic education to improve their chances of gaining employment or entering further education.
Expected Result	Relevant training programme developed and implemented that builds marketable skills, knowledge and attitudes

Strategy Analysis

Focus group discussions with both the CDG and the PAC focused on the potential strategies and scope of the ABVET project and what could be achieved within available budgets and resources. These deliberations were informed by data collected during the document review, respondent interviews, questionnaires and focus group discussions during the stakeholder workshop. Consensus emanating from the deliberations informed the identification of activities for inclusion in the LFM. These activities were perceived to be necessary by the stakeholders to successfully deliver the project result, purpose and overall objective identified during the problem and

objectives analysis.

Based on the assumption that not all proposed activities would be possible, the focus group discussions were guided by the following sub-questions originating from the Project Cycle Management Manual (European Commission, 2004):

- Should all the identified problems and/or objectives in the relevant trees be tackled?
- What interventions are most likely to bring about the desired results and promote sustainability of benefits?
- How is ownership of the project supported, including development of capacity?
- What are the likely development and recurrent cost implications and what can realistically be afforded?
- Which strategy will impact most positively on addressing the needs of the target group?

Through the use of these sub-questions, the focus groups had to agree on the most feasible and sustainable implementation options within the project timeframe that would most likely be acceptable to policy makers in the Ministry of Education and the EC. Ultimately several compromises had to be made with regard to: political demands, timeframes and practical constraints such as the resources set aside under the ninth NDP to achieve the expected results in the LFM.

While an assessment of the project's feasibility and sustainability required a preliminary appraisal of the financial, human and physical resources necessary to implement the project in the medium to long term; it was also important to identify assumptions and risks related to the capacity of the implementing authorities to sustain the project. The concerns that emanated from the PAC and the CDG were detailed in 'Assumptions and Risks' column of the LFM as a way of alerting policy makers to the underlying threats to project success. Four main issues were identified and discussed by the two focus groups:

- a) Physical capacity in the Technical Colleges
- b) Capacity of professional and institutional staff
- c) Student recruitment
- d) Additional student support mechanisms

a) Physical capacity in the Technical Colleges

Since the beginning of NDP 7 in 1991, and the expansion and modernisation of vocational education and training, the number of full-time students in the Technical Colleges increased from 6,500 students in 2004 to 7,200 in 2006 (Department of Vocational Education and Training, 2006). The resultant pressure on the existing infrastructure raised questions regarding the ability of the sector to cope with the addition of the ABVET programme to the curriculum offer. A senior government adviser remarked that the space available in the Technical Colleges was currently insufficient to accommodate an ABVET Programme:

“Nationally there is a lack of classrooms and with the imminent implementation of the higher level programmes, the new ABVET programme may find it difficult to compete for space.”

As a compromise, he suggested that Brigades should be used to deliver the key skills element of the programme with the vocational skills units being delivered at a Technical College. This would, however, raise additional resource implications of transporting students between centres. With already excessive pressure on a limited number of college vehicles, this may not prove to be a viable alternative. Instead it was suggested by a senior member of DVET management that the ABVET project should utilise the new facilities planned for construction at one of the Technical Colleges. This facility is currently being planned as a new learning resource centre for students with additional learning needs and could potentially become the pilot facilities for ABVET. Both the CDG and the PAC agreed that this could be a viable option. However, no mention was made of the potential of marginalising these students further by segregating them from mainstream provision. A senior Technical Assistant also remarked that the facilities would not be completed before the ABVET programme was ready for implementation and that the pilot college management would need to identify at least some classroom space in the existing facilities in the short to medium term. However, as discovered by the UNESCO evaluation, ‘Sharpening the Focus’,

sharing of resources can prove to be problematic as staff in institutions are not always willing to part with scarce resources and space. UNESCO recommended therefore that a 'resource sharing policy' at the Ministerial and institutional levels would be necessary before any programme is implemented (Republic of Botswana & UNESCO, 2004, p.38). So while the use of the new facilities would provide a way forward, the CDG and the PAC agreed it would be necessary to develop a policy to allow for arrangements for the usage of common resources such as space, staff and equipment in the short term.

In summary these deliberations led to the inclusion of the following activities in the LFM: to develop and implement a new resource sharing policy, complete the new Learning Resource Centre and identify interim classroom space until new facilities are available. Based on these activities and the context in which they would take place, I identified one assumption for inclusion in the LFM which could potentially impact on project success namely: whether the Ministry of Education would agree to develop and implement a resource sharing policy at the Ministry level.

b) Capacity of Professional and Institutional Staff

Finding suitable classroom space is an issue that can be relatively easily resolved. However, as mentioned by almost all government officers interviewed, the issue of identifying staff with the capacity to deliver the proposed programme may not be so easy. Indeed, both the CDG and the PAC discussed the issue that many of the lecturers would need systematic in-service training. The focus groups indicated that training in areas such as special needs, adult learning styles, student centred learning, differentiation and facilitation may be needed. It was subsequently agreed by both the CDG and the PAC that in the early stages it would be necessary to provide teaching, learning and assessment guidance and materials to promote consistency of delivery and assessment at a level which many teachers may have little or no experience. For example, a lecturer, as a member of the CDG, expressed the opinion that the apprenticeship programme in Botswana was a low level qualification and that apprentices were 'less able students'. This is a surprising summation since the apprenticeship scheme is levelled in the Botswana National and Credit Qualifications Framework at a level higher than BGCSE and the BTEP that constitutes the greatest

proportion of their daily work. Furthermore, the entry qualification for an apprenticeship is on average five BGCSEs, the same as a BTEP which demonstrates a possible lack of appreciation of what constitutes a ‘less able student’. This raises the issue that the typical ABVET student with no formal qualifications, or at most only a PSLE, may be way below the academic expectations of an archetypal college lecturer and indeed beyond the perceived ‘typical’ characteristics of a technical college student. Furthermore, the UNESCO evaluation, entitled ‘Sharpening the Focus’ identified that many adult literacy learners are more mature with a greater level of personal commitments such as children. During an interview with a group of nine college lecturers all agreed that a programme of this nature may attract older students:

“There are a lot of older people in particular who would be interested in this programme, especially those who had dropped out of school without having the opportunity to gain qualifications.”

The evaluation goes on to suggest that these differences in characteristics will have an impact on delivery. Indeed, the evaluators suggest an enormous amount of flexibility is required in terms of length, delivery and timing of provision as well as the teachers’ ability to design teaching and learning materials tailor-made to meet individual learning needs. This potential difference in characteristics was also highlighted by the Chairperson of the PAC who remarked:

“They (adult learners) may have lost the habit of learning and because of earlier school failures, may even doubt their ability to learn at all.”

All of these factors demand different kinds of provision, different teaching approaches and usually higher levels of support. The PAC all agreed that to improve the students’ chances of success at this level, teachers will need to shed didactic teaching methods and learn how to facilitate, use local resources and design good quality teaching and learning materials. A Principal Technical Education Officer from the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation also strongly advocated that:

“Staff need to be well qualified and experienced in basic skills development. Staff should also be familiar with Setswana for these lower groups to help with comprehension.”

However, nine college lecturers expressed during a meeting that:

“Lecturers in the Technical Colleges are not experienced or qualified for this specialised role.”

When asked where the programme should be delivered, the lecturers suggested that the Brigades were better placed to cater for this level of student as they felt that the Brigades teachers were used to dealing with less able students. Other reasons cited included the advantageous geographical location of the Brigades in rural communities which would be more accessible to students who had previously dropped out of school or have family commitments. Earlier analysis supports this proposal since drop-out rates are typically highest in rural areas.

It could be argued, however, that the above lecturers’ responses were self-protective as staff in the Technical Colleges are actively engaged in development work associated with higher level technical education programmes:

“The CDG expressed concern that the new ABVET project may stretch the Colleges too much, especially as they wish to expand into higher level programmes.” (CDG minutes June 2006)

This not only affects current capacity, it may also affect perceptions of staff related to what they recognise as their main purpose and focus resulting in ‘mission drift’ towards tertiary education, rather than vocational provision for all levels of students. Indeed, once colleges offer higher level programmes they are entitled to the added benefit of higher status and pay and potentially an easier job!

There is the danger, then, that if the ABVET programme is implemented in the Technical Colleges, the negative perceptions of the lecturers may result in ‘avoidance’ or even disregard. The issue was collectively raised during an interview with three Principal Education Officers from the Department of Special Education who warned that:

“VET institutions need to be realistic about who they admit onto the programme to avoid frustration and disappointment amongst both staff and students.”

To mitigate against this, it was initially suggested by the CDG that a three to six month, full-time staff development programme would be required to adequately cover the training needs above to deliver the ABVET programme. However, at a later meeting this proposal was amended by the CDG who felt that only a limited amount of information and new skills could be absorbed and practised by the lecturers using a block-release approach. They therefore suggested that a two week fulltime training session should be followed by an ongoing part-time staff development programme over a longer period of about one year. This would allow them to digest, contextualise and practise new techniques and skills and also allow the trainers to have a developmental approach to course content and lecturers' needs. The connotations of the training would be two fold. Initially, it would be necessary for DVET to design and develop a long term, tailor made staff development programme as an implementation activity. In addition the College Management would have to agree to release staff for training. In the past this approach to long term part-time training has proved problematic as lecturers have been required to attend training sessions during term breaks to minimise disruption to teaching. However this approach was unpopular with lecturers who felt that the term breaks constituted their holidays, resulting in poor attendance at training sessions due to staff taking annual leave (Programmes Development Division Meeting Minutes February 2006). These issues could pose a potential risk to project success.

The above discussion highlights the need for the project planner to build flexibility in to the project implementation strategy. While the ABVET programme by its nature, would necessarily have to be delivered in a Brigade or Technical College, project planners should be open to the possibility of recruiting staff to deliver the ABVET programme from other educational sub-sectors more experienced of working at this level. Indeed Junior Secondary school teachers have already proved that they can make the transfer to the vocational sector with large numbers of them being employed in the Technical Colleges delivering the generic Key Skill elements of the BTEP curriculum. However, based on lessons learned from other projects it appears that it is still necessary to expose specifically recruited staff to a training programme which would raise awareness of the learning environment, the needs of the target group and their learning requirements.

Indeed the option of using staff with an experience profile more suited to the project to avoid the need for redeployment and/or retraining of existing staff in the colleges, was an option considered by the focus groups. Each focus group was made aware that this approach was employed by DNFE during the implementation of the BNLP. To avoid the need for substantial initial staff development, the DNFE revised its recruitment strategy of staff holding only a PSLE to that of recruiting qualified teachers from the primary and junior secondary sector. Despite the logic of this option, the UNESCO research team reported that discussions with BNLP participants, complemented by classroom observation showed that many teachers specifically recruited from the primary and junior secondary sectors also lacked the specific facilitation and pedagogical skills. The UNESCO team therefore suggested that all adult basic education teachers should undergo training that includes:

Making the learning process and its different steps more transparent for learners, talking about learning difficulties and giving useful feedback... Learning counselling activities should also include a continuous effort to motivate learners (Republic of Botswana & UNESCO, 2004, p.55).

The above deliberations with the CDG and the PAC resulted in the inclusion of the following activities in the LFM: the development and implementation of a new in-service training programme; the development of teaching and learning materials; the recruitment of new staff with appropriate expertise and qualifications. Many of these activities, however, also raised a number of associated risks and assumptions which needed to be included in the LFM. These risks and assumptions included the following: the Ministry of Education would allocate establishment posts at the colleges to manage and implement the ABVET programme; the management in the colleges would be willing to release staff for in-service training and finally, existing staff would be willing and available to participate in training. During project implementation it would be necessary to put in place strategies that would minimise the potential negative effects of these risks and assumptions.

The development and implementation of the ABVET project would also be coordinated by an existing post holder within DVET who is also responsible for the development and implementation of Key Skills across five levels in six Technical Colleges and the coordination of Associated Studies in forty one Brigades.

Coordination and management of both ABVET and Key Skills is an enormous task for one person and is likely to result in slippage in one or more areas of the officer's mandate. It is therefore essential that additional staff are built into the project design to reduce delays and over burdening already pressed staff:

“DVET is taking on too many new projects. It's commendable that ABVET is being developed, but DVET should really concentrate on improving what's already there.” (DVET Senior Manager)

This view was shared by one college Principal and some Heads of Department in one Technical College who felt that they have hardly had time to embed the plethora of new arrangements for other quality assurance requirements and especially the burden of assessment and the procedures to be followed for certification. When compounded with the associated continuous professional development many felt that the introduction of a new ABVET project would impose further burdens on a system that was struggling to find its feet. As a solution, a senior Technical Assistant remarked that: “...the ABVET programme should only be made available in two carefully selected vocational areas rather than being generally available for all areas.” He further suggested offering programmes in construction and engineering as these were the areas in largest demand by employers, but also remarked that one of the main disadvantages of using these two programmes is that the staff can be ‘set in their ways’ and may find it difficult to adapt to less able students. He asked that hospitality should be avoided because it was already oversubscribed and instead suggested using hairdressing and beauty therapy due to underutilisation of facilities and staff in this area. An external consultant contracted to assist with the design rules of the proposed ABVET programme also stated:

There is a need for a coordinated approach to curriculum planning, management and delivery if the full potential of this new level of qualification in the framework is going to be realised. Some broader considerations beyond those related to coordinated working should also be examined, particularly in relation to whose students are they, who takes the lead role in recruitment and induction. There needs to be effective and close working between the different subject areas or departments which will be involved. There will be a critical need also for detailed programme planning and development by the programme team, together with any other groups of staff involved in supporting and delivering the programme (Scottish Qualifications Authority Consultant, 2006)

These comments led to the inclusion of two further activities in the LFM namely: the identification of appropriate vocational programme for the delivery of the ABVET

programme and the recruitment of more administrative staff at DVET to manage the development and coordination of the programme. These activities led me to include two potential risks and assumptions in the LFM: that the Ministry of Education is willing to allocate additional establishment posts at DVET and that Heads of Department in the colleges are willing to enrol students on to the ABVET programme.

c) Student recruitment

It is not uncommon for well qualified individuals in Botswana to access programmes at a lower level than their ability to simply get into a technical college, resulting in disenfranchisement of the intended beneficiaries:

“It is noted, however, that the Foundation programme is geared to JCE holders but that entrants to Foundation programmes are frequently Form 5 students with their BGCSEs. The corollary to this is that the Technical Colleges should consider giving entry preference to its originally intended target group – i.e. those who have just left school at Form 3 level”. (Ministry of Education, 2007b, pp 32-33)

During an interview, a senior technical assistant reflected on recruitment problems associated with the BTEP and warned that:

“The demand for places on this programme could be very high and there could be a lot of students who are more qualified than the Programme demands, applying. It will therefore be necessary to put in place mechanisms to weed out those who have other alternatives”.

This high demand for places is exemplified in the following extract from a BTEP

Industry Validation Document:

It is noted that the number of places available on a BTEP programme is very low in comparison to the number of applicants. For example, in 2003, 1,560 persons applied to the BTEP EME Foundation programme at ‘Johnston College’ and only 48 were admitted; 1,339 applied for the same programme at Turner TC and only 32 admitted; and Wallace received 666 applications for 32 places.” (p.45 EME). (The names of the colleges have been changed to maintain confidentiality)

In contrast, a Head of Department from one of the technical colleges, who was well aware of the needs of the intended target group, and that the JCs would already be competent on most of the content of the ABVET curriculum, suggested that the ABVET programme should specifically recruit the JC leavers. She remarked that:

“There is a huge group of JC leavers with poor JC marks who are currently disadvantaged. Please consider this group for the ABVET programme.”

This request may be genuine concern regarding the lack of places in the colleges for poor JC leavers wishing to access further education. It may also be a latent desire to keep the level of teaching demand as familiar as possible as poorly graded JC students would not be as unfamiliar to staff as students with a PSLE or no formal qualifications.

Both of these arguments were presented to the CDG and the PAC for consideration. After much discussion, it was decided that the recruitment of students should be restricted to those students the programme was designed for and went further to agree that:

“...open advertising for the pilot would not be sensible and that in addition, teachers and students from the Botswana National Literacy Programme could be approached to attend. It was also commented by a PEO in the Department of Primary Education, that there needs to be a wider spread of recruitment for the pilot and that the Department of Social Welfare, DNFE and NGOs in all six districts should be approached so that the intake would be ‘generally representative’. Otherwise this may lead to false impressions during the pilot.” (PAC Minutes, October, 2006).

In the short term, this solution provides a feasible way forward, however, in the long term this form of selective recruitment may be considered discriminatory and it would be necessary to employ more ‘open’ recruitment strategies. For example, a PTEO from the Department of Secondary suggested that an entrance test should be used with potential ABVET students to make sure that only those who are motivated and able to cope with the programme are admitted. The importance of establishing a student’s suitability for the ABVET programme was reinforced by one PAC member who stated that:

“Taking students haphazardly could jeopardise returnees’ confidence even further.”

This view was also supported by the PAC who also advocated that a written test should also be used in conjunction with an interview in either English or Setswana, to ascertain their suitability for enrolment in the programme. Indeed one consultant from the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA) suggested that students should initially be

‘trialled’ to assess their suitability for participation in the programme before formal enrolment takes place. Students found not to be suitable would be guided into making other, more suitable choices and that the admissions strategy to this effect would need to be in place before the programme was launched.

Many of the potential ABVET students may be unemployed, and economically disadvantaged, a factor that may potentially affect access and recruitment. A senior Technical Assistant argued that targeted advertising would be necessary to allay potential students’ fears that they may have to pay fees, as many would be exempt due to their personal circumstances. He suggested that DVET should waive fees for the pilot ABVET programme to encourage those who are economically disadvantaged to apply. However the PAC or the CDG did not agree with this sentiment, preferring instead that the pilot programme should reflect as closely as possible the conditions under which the normal programme would run. In addition, they felt that other students in the college would see the waiving of fees as discriminatory.

In summary, due to the newness of qualifications of this type, stakeholders concurred that special attention should be given to modes of student recruitment to make certain that participation of the intended target group is secured. As a result, the development of a recruitment and admission policy for the ABVET programme was included as an activity in the LFM. The college management would also have to use examinations databases, and national registration cards to prepare an admissions and recruitment strategy to assure the intake is as intended. This factor was included as a potential risk to project success on that basis that even though this information is currently available for the BTE Programme, it is not utilised by the management to ensure access to programmes for intended target group.

d) Additional student support mechanisms

A PTEO from the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation suggested that many students who return to education have previously dropped out for various reasons. Indeed she stated that it would be necessary to have:

“Some form of aggressive marketing to encourage those who have previously failed, to return to education.”

To ensure that low student achievement does not recur in this learning intervention she stated that it would be necessary to put in place appropriate student support mechanisms such as tutoring, guidance and counselling to help students through individual difficulties. In this regard, a PEO from the Department of Secondary Education suggested that some form of differentiated learning, including Individual Learning Plans should be adopted so that individual needs and aspirations are met. He stated that groups of no more than eight students should be recruited for each class, but lamented that this may not be cost effective. In fact the Government of Botswana and the EC indicator clearly states that two groups of sixteen should be recruited for the pilot programme. Numbers below this target would affect disbursement of the SPSP tranche four since the performance indicator requires thirty students to be enrolled before the third quarter of 2007 (appendix 14).

While a unanimous response from all thirty seven educationalists who responded to the questionnaire stated that there is a current lack of provision for adult basic education and training in Botswana they concurred that this type of programme would only be beneficial if it provides additional support for students. Both the Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning and the Department of Non-Formal Education programmes offer this kind of support to their distance learning students, however, both organisations and their programmes are viewed as traditionalist (Principal Technical Education Officer, Regional Office) and not geared to provide full time institutional based programmes with the support mechanisms needed by students below JC level. A Principal Education Officer from the Primary Department, however, stressed that:

“Learners undertaking distance learning need to be highly motivated and those that drop out of school may have lacked this quality in the first place.”

The Technical Colleges and Brigades are, however, in an excellent position to provide such full-time provision and support, provided that the teachers are trained and the appropriate policy arrangements are developed and implemented:

“Any new basic skills programme should provide plenty of structure with strong support and tutoring to help students through difficulties.” (PEO, Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation)

In an endeavour to find out what the possible support needs of the ABVET students may be, twenty nine BTEP Foundation students were asked to complete a questionnaire which required them to reflect on their own experiences of being ‘mature’ returnees to full time formal education. They were asked: ‘What kind of additional help do you think someone without a JC would need to help them learn in college?’ In response, the majority of the students stated that issues associated with personal welfare were most important. In particular, nine of the students suggested that students at this level would require some form of financial support to ensure that they could commit to their studies:

“Firstly they would need financial help so that they don’t miss school because of financial problems” (Male BTEP Foundation student)

Seven students also stated that they should have accommodation close to improve access to flexible learning opportunities:

“They should be provided with allowances so that they can be able to transport themselves to school or rather be accommodated so that they can have evening classes” (Female BTEP Foundation student)

Surprisingly only six out of twenty nine stated that they would benefit from additional tutor support or extra lessons. This may be as a result of a lack of exposure to additional tutor support which is hitherto only factored in to higher education provision in Botswana. It could also be down to bad learning experiences in the past. This is illustrated by the quote from a female BTEP foundation student:

“There must be good teachers who put the student’s needs at their heart, not those who tease students telling them about their unemployment.”

A Principal Technical Education Officer from the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation remarked that students at this level need plenty of structure which should include tight deadlines for completion of work and strong support to help students through difficulties. The need to design and implement

tutoring systems within the colleges was therefore included as an activity in the LFM, but would rely on the willingness of staff to undertake such duties.

This data analysis is important in guiding the management strategy for learning support. Much of what may be desired by the archetypical target student would not be possible under current college and government policy for curriculum offers at this level. A case in point is the desire for financial assistance, which would not be possible under current legislation which only supports post senior secondary courses. This may therefore be a major risk to project success if the Ministry of Education is not willing to provide additional financial support to the ABVET students. In addition, the college management would have to ensure that students' expectations do not exceed what is practicably possible. Contracts of learning are increasingly common in Botswana and bind students to conditions of enrolment related to funding, student accommodation, attendance, behaviour and completion of assignments. As a result, 'learning contracts' have been included as an activity in the LFM.

Many of the views expressed in this analysis highlight the wide range of values, pessimism and genuine worries over implementation capacity for the ABVET. At this stage of the analysis most of the risks and assumptions, which may have the potential to negatively impact on project implementation and success, had been flagged up by the data but their mitigation may not always be possible.

It is acknowledged that many of the stated assumptions in the LFM, may appear to some as subjective and open to interpretation, primarily based on my knowledge and experience of the context and my interpretation of the project activities identified by the PAC and CDG. Indeed, if this type of study was to be repeated, it would be important to include the discussion and agreement of risks and assumptions in the data collection process.- what is considered to be a key assumption to one group may not be so important to others: the probability and significance of external conditions being met, particularly those beyond the control of the project, and is part of assessing how 'risky' the project is; however it is recognised that some assumptions may be critical to project success and others of marginal importance (European Commission, 2004). In many ways the assumptions and risks bolt the logframe together in terms of promoting

the likelihood of its feasibility and sustainability through appropriate and mitigating strategies and risk management arrangements.

It is hoped that the information contained in the LFM (appendix 7) provides policy makers with the information they would need to make informed decisions pertaining to whether they should:

- request additional information and clarification before deciding to go ahead with implementation of the ABVET project
 - accept the ABVET project with modifications
 - accept the ABVET project without modifications
- or
- reject the ABVET project design and implementation strategy outright.

CHAPTER SIX

Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to draw conclusions and make recommendations from the findings of this study in relation to the substantive, methodological and theoretical issues. The chapter is organised into two parts: Part one discusses the extent to which the findings generate answers to the three research questions; and part two concludes the central aim of the study, evaluating the extent to which the study adds to the existing body of literature.

PART ONE

1. Why is there a need for an adult basic vocational education and training (ABVET) project in Botswana?

Chapter two contextualised the thesis by examining the literature exploring the socioeconomic needs of Botswana and how the Government is addressing those needs through national development plans and sector policies. The literature review identified that poverty, unemployment and HIV/AIDS were the Government's current and most pressing socioeconomic challenges. The publication of Vision 2016 was a political milestone which set ambitious targets for the Government to address its development challenges through consecutive National Development Plans. Since 2003, NDP 9 has focused development priorities on the expansion of education and training mainly at senior secondary level and above, with efforts to improve quality across all levels.

During the literature review, however, it became apparent that the Government's more recent neo-liberal approach to education and training as a way of addressing its socioeconomic challenges, and increasing competitiveness associated with globalisation, may not be the most appropriate to achieving some of the key pillars of Vision 2016 nor meeting the aspirations and interests of other stakeholders. Indeed, in its endeavour to facilitate a high skilled, high waged, magnet economy, the Government approach has recently intensified its focus on investment in higher education. An approach which could be aimed at placating ever increasing numbers of unemployed senior secondary school leavers. The thrust to expand higher education

provision may stoke credential inflation and deplete much needed resources for those who are socially and economically disadvantaged. Furthermore, the introduction of cost-sharing measures have been justified as a means of shoring up high levels of government investment and to compel families to ‘invest’ in the education of their children. However this approach may exclude and marginalise further those in poverty as they may not be able to afford to continue in formal education also highlighting how their lack of social capital may inhibit their ability to make informed decisions on the educational investment for their children. It is therefore tangible that both these issues may affect the most vulnerable in Botswana if alternative education policies and programmes are not put in place to facilitate participation of the poor in formal education and training. Without such redress, there is the danger that the poorest Botswana will continue to rely on family or Government social safety nets resulting in the gap between the rich and the poor widening and valuable human resources wasted.

The EC, through the 9th Country Strategy Paper and the SPSP, has therefore targeted equity and access to education and training in Botswana to drive an agenda in line with EC priorities and address the needs of the poor and most vulnerable. EC priorities through the SPSP therefore focused on access and equity and the relevance of education and training to the economy and employability. The latter issues were commonly criticised for lack of focus in the Botswana National Literacy Programme (BNLP) (Mpofu and Youngman, 2001; Republic of Botswana and UNESCO, 2004). Mpofu and Youngman, concluded that the lack of effectiveness in the existing BNLP is not simply a problem of implementation and resources but rather a problem of conception, suggesting that there needs to be a fundamental re-think of the purposes and modalities of adult basic education and training if the challenges of access, opportunity, and social inclusion are to be met.

Nonetheless policy makers in the Ministry of Education put plans in place in 1997 to design and implement an ABVET programme, however progress on implementation was non-existent until 2004 for a number of reasons: lack of specialist curriculum developers and more pressing priorities for the mainstream curriculum development and to some extent lack of a political will to support the ABVET target group. Fresh impetus was nevertheless given to ABVET through the various EC feasibility studies

carried out since 2000 as preliminaries to the signing of the Financing Agreement for the Sector Policy Support Programme in 2004 and its focus on the challenges facing vulnerable groups in Botswana. The inclusion of process/output indicators for the implementation of ABVET, as triggers for the disbursement of aid payments, ensured a focus of attention on implementation which had hitherto been neglected. Indeed, I would doubt whether development of the project would ever have happened if the project had not been linked directly to funding. It has been highlighted at various junctures that the Financing Agreement and its related indicators provided a commitment to the poor against a background of neo-liberal policies dominating the development agenda of NDP9. In this context, the EC development priorities have been instrumental in reinstating initiatives such as ABVET on the funding agenda.

Simply being on the Government's funding agenda under the auspices of the SPSP, however, does not necessarily guarantee successful passage through the planning process and allocation of funds for implementation. Indeed, it could be argued that the ABVET initiative was at risk of going no further than conception because of the new funding modality of budget support, rather than targeted project support. For example, the shift away from financial support of specific projects to budget support has resulted in tranche payments under the SPSP going straight into Government coffers as reward of achievement against agreed indicators with the EC. This situation presents a political dilemma for the EC, since the Government can spend EC disbursed funds as they wish without necessarily investing in the specific targets set within the SPSP. This presents a clear argument that there is a continued need under SPSP for the indicators to be 'process and output in nature' to promote the continued development of projects and to ensure the timely release of tranche payments in the future.

2. To what extent can ABVET contribute towards the development of human and social capital?

Chapter three reviewed literature pertinent to the substantive topic and in particular, it analysed the socioeconomic challenges facing developing countries and discussed the role that adult basic education and training has played in the development of human and social capital. Both the EC and the Government of Botswana have recognised the importance of HRD to economic diversification and globalisation. It is confirmed to

some extent that HRD has the potential to equip Batswana with the right knowledge, skills, attitudes and mind-set to meet individual, community and national development goals. However, as the concept of a national HRD strategy is still in its infancy, I would argue that there is a lack of understanding amongst policy makers of the latent and overt potential of HRD and how it may facilitate systemic change. Because of this absence of a national HRD strategy I considered it important in the context of this research to focus on the tangible benefits of human and social capital evidenced to some extent by the literature.

ABVET and human capital

The contribution of human capital to poverty alleviation and social and economic inclusion featured in much of the literature reviewed in this study. However the measurement of its benefits is considered difficult due to the diverse skills demand by industry types. In countries where there are high numbers of people with limited human capital there is evidence to suggest improving credentials through adult basic education has a strong beneficial effect in contributing to its accumulation. Multi-country studies showed clear connections between literacy, human capital, economic growth and GDP (Cameron, 2005; Coulombe, Tremblay and Merchand, 2004). These trends suggest that reducing levels of illiteracy within a country could maximise human capital potential and promote social inclusion. Indeed, research carried out by Archer and Fry (2005) suggests that basic literacy makes a powerful difference to people's chances of escaping from poverty by helping them to become socially included rather than excluded and, at the same time facilitating their contribution to national development. I would argue, however, that simply increasing levels of literacy may not be enough to promote social inclusion and that the possession of nationally recognised 'qualifications' are a more important indicator of human capital.

Benefits of human capital were supported by the data in chapter five. Although not referring to human capital per se, stakeholders expressed opinions that human capital in the form of a minimum set of credentials would enable an individual to gain employment or enter into further education and training. Indeed, the data highlighted the importance of credentials to employers as a measure of human capital, and their use in facilitating access to the labour market. However, there is evidence to suggest in

many countries, that human capital development may implicitly be contributing towards credential inflation and escalation, promoting rather than reducing exclusion. This notion is also supported by critics of human capital theory who assert that possession of human capital in the form of credentials is not for the benefit of the individual, but is used as a screening device by employers and politicians to quantitatively improve levels of productivity and profit (Bourdieu, 2001).

The data collected for this study concurred with the findings of Bourdieu suggesting that employers in Botswana were requesting relatively high qualifications for even the most unskilled employment. This suggests that with ever increasing unemployment, competition for jobs is rising and employers could simply be using qualifications as a way of cutting down the number of applicants rather than using qualifications as a way of gaining a competitive advantage. This use of qualifications as a screening device has the potential to marginalise further unqualified members of society.

This screening phenomenon also appears evident in the education system itself, with increasing levels of qualifications being demanded by institutions as an entrance requirement. This could potentially result in lower level applicants being excluded who would have previously been included in the admissions process a number of years ago. The lecturers are also supporting this move as there are increasing demands made upon their time and pressure to meet demands of achievement. They do not want to be teaching pupils who are going to struggle, need additional support or fail to achieve learning outcomes. This form of exclusion will continue unless programmes of learning are designed specifically for those with low or no formal qualifications. Without such provision this cohort of learners will be denied the opportunity and knowledge of how to build their human capital beyond the scope of their immediate family or community. A notion which I would argue directly connects human capital with social capital.

ABVET and Social Capital

Analysis of the literature into the nature, benefits and accumulation of social capital are well documented. In summary, there is growing evidence to suggest that social capital is critical to national sustainable economic development, in addition to fostering a

community's capacity to work together, address common needs, promote inclusion and increase transparency and accountability. The World Bank's suggestion that social capital can improve participation in the labour market by building networks, levels of trust, and sharing common norms and values was of particular relevance to this study.

The literature clearly supported the view that the most effective way for an individual to accumulate social capital is through interaction with others and networking. However, in Botswana, levels of poverty, the impact of HIV on family structures and rural-urban migration have served only to undermine family and community ties and levels of social capital. The research identified many individuals affected by these socioeconomic challenges as potential beneficiaries of the ABVET project. They would typically be those who have dropped out of formal education and may therefore have been unable to build social networks beyond the bonding stage. The stakeholders consulted recognised that the target group, because of their personal circumstances, would benefit from the opportunity to develop their social skills and network within an ABVET programme. Respondents were clear about what type of social skills the ABVET students would need to develop; but they were not clear about how this could be achieved. It could be argued that without a clear understanding of the importance of social capital on the part of the teaching cadre and educational managers and policy makers and how it can be developed, then the potential benefits of the ABVET programme may not be fully appreciated. In an education system that is typically passive and traditionalist, the promotion of social capital will need a fundamental realignment of teaching approaches and attitudes amongst both staff and students. This would require deviation from the passive individual learning approaches to more interactive, constructivist learning approaches which utilise and build networking and collaborative skills, knowledge and attitudes. All of which require significant professional development and careful project design and implementation strategies.

3) To what extent can a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach frame a relevant, feasible and sustainable ABVET project for Botswana?

Two main issues ensued from this research question. Firstly, it identified design and implementation issues relevant for the ABVET project and secondly, it assessed the

application and suitability of both PBM and the PCM approach for the design and implementation of development projects. Findings and conclusions drawn from both of these issues are discussed in this section.

Relevance and the content of the ABVET programme

In the absence of a clear definition in the literature of Adult Basic Education and Training it was important to define this term to conceptualise the ABVET project. The only consensus on the definition of this term appeared limited to ‘literacy’ that enabled participants simply to learn how to read and write through which adults could be empowered to build the social and human capital necessary to gain access to work and further education and to break out of the poverty trap. Evolving definitions of ABET have continued to emphasise the application of literacy in everyday life, but now there has been a fundamental shift of opinion that literacy alone cannot provide all that is required to function in society (Lonsdale and McCurry, 2004). In particular, the work of Delors et al (1996) provided a definition of ABET which encapsulates both human and social capital proposing that any ABET programme should include four pillars:

Learning to know; Learning to be; Learning to live together and Learning to do.

In combination, these pillars offered a theoretical basis which would promote the holistic development of the individual, focusing on the development of knowledge, skills **and** attitudes. This stance, supported by the data sought to provide a project designed to encapsulate an ABVET programme which would simultaneously build both human and social capital and ensure its fitness for purpose.

To ensure that the ABVET programme was fit for purpose a number of factors were identified. The evaluation of the BNLP (Republic of Botswana and UNESCO, 2004) claimed a number of limitations in its ability to address the needs of its learners. In particular, it highlighted that a lack of an explicit curriculum and a failure to develop a comprehensive conceptual, theoretical and philosophical framework. This culminated in a perspective of adult education which was too narrow since its content did not meet the needs of either employers or students. UNESCO therefore recommended that any new adult basic education programme should have a coherent framework, with an appropriate assessment strategy and quality indicators. The recommendations went further to suggest that it should also include more practical skills and core skills and

provide an opportunity for students to achieve a relevant and recognised national qualification.

During the data collection proper, stakeholders felt that it was important for beneficiaries to gain a qualification that was at least equivalent to a Junior Certificate, which according to the data analysis, was the lowest level at which someone should enter into work, further study or self-employment. This simultaneously addressed the employers' current recruitment practice that the qualification should have a minimum 'currency' in the labour market. It would therefore be important that the new ABVET qualification is pegged to the National Credit and Qualifications Framework to provide recognition, alignment and progression.

The content suggested for the ABVET programme was particularly interesting. There was unanimous agreement that the programme should include generic key skills such as: communication, numeracy, study skills, information communications technology and life skills; and vocational skills as this combination would present the best options to help individuals get employment or start their own business. The balance between vocational and key skills, however, was a matter of contention, with some stakeholders, especially the employers, wishing more emphasis on key skills and work experience rather than vocational skills. The vocational lecturers were the main exception arguing protectively that their particular vocational area was paramount and did not want to see valuable time being spent learning subjects they considered to be less important.

By encompassing lessons learned from the Delors' Report; the Evaluation of the BNLP; the recent evaluation of the Botswana Technical Education Programme (Ministry of Education, 2007b) and information gleaned from stakeholders suggested that for the ABVET programme to be relevant and fit for purpose, its curriculum blueprint should be:

- carefully defined to establish a consistent conceptual and philosophical starting point;
- well structured to ensure that there is internal consistency and progression;

- integrated into the country's overall qualifications framework;
- aligned with other qualifications to provide clear progression routes;
- modularised to enable students to build up their own 'bespoke' qualification relating to their personal interests at their own pace;
- functional in terms of developing the students ability to: **know**: such as problem-solving, and critical thinking; **to be**: such as self-awareness and feelings; **to live together**: including social abilities, such as: communication, negotiation, assertiveness, teamwork and empathy, and finally, **to do**: including practical skills for employment, including self-employment;
- focused on promoting the transition between education and employment by including an element of work experience into the programme;
- appropriately assessed and quality assured.

Feasibility and Sustainability – the implementation of the ABVET project

The literature and data analysis highlighted several constraints that could potentially affect the implementation of the ABVET Project. Which included: physical capacity in the Technical Colleges; capacity of the professional and institutional staff; student recruitment and student support mechanisms as implementation issues that had the potential to impact negatively on the feasibility and sustainability of the ABVET project. This analysis contributed to structuring the activities and associated Risks and Assumptions in the logframe and would serve as an important monitoring tool during implementation.

Of these factors Government support, although secured mainly through the agreement to an ABVET Indicator in the SPSP and subtle pressure from the EU Delegation in Botswana, was, and will remain key to successful implementation and sustainability. While VET expansion to date has provided the physical space for the new BTEP and the ABVET programme the latter will still need to compete with the new advanced certificate and diploma level programmes for staff and resources due to come on stream in 2008/09. Much will need to be done at both the Ministerial and College Management level to ensure that resources are dedicated to what is perceived to be a low status programme for school drop outs. Without amended admissions policies, equal opportunities and resource sharing policies there is the danger that the ABVET

programme could be relegated to the Brigades, outside the dedicated facilities, which are often seen as a poor cousin of the Technical College. Nevertheless, it should be stressed that the Brigades often in remote communities are ideally positioned for this type of target group. Many have adequate facilities and adequate staff (albeit requiring training) to deliver such a programme which would mean that the skills, knowledge and attitudes of the target group are developed within a highly localised context.

Indeed the training of all institutional staff was considered to be essential if the programme is to be competently implemented. With many current VET teachers still relying on traditional didactic methods, especially in the Brigades, a systematic staff development programme will be required both in the short and long term to not only raise awareness, but to bring about a fundamental shift in pedagogy which builds both human and social capital effectively. I have no doubt this will be difficult with entrenched traditional attitudes and conservative outlook, much will need to be done to bring about fundamental change. The characteristics of the ABVET curriculum will be so designed to ensure a pedagogical shift which focuses on student centred learning and an assessment strategy which evidences student achievement of skills, knowledge and attitudes. The move towards a student centred approach for the ABVET will be radical for many students who are not used to working independently or are used to didactic teaching methods. The provision of appropriate student support mechanisms will therefore be essential to providing students with the necessary resources to engage in a positive learning experience especially for those lacking confidence in the education system. These measures may prove to be a challenge in a system where additional support mechanisms are absent or in their infancy. Consequently two main factors could impact on the sustainability of this issue. Firstly, staff are not always willing or able to spend time with students who require remediation. Secondly, the Government is not always willing to approve funding for establishment posts for additional learning support or pastoral care. The average teacher's remedy to this problem is to recruit only those students that are more able, possibly already qualified but certainly targeting those with a low probability of requiring additional support. If admissions policies are not developed and the arrangements applied rigorously for enrolment on ABVET there is a grave danger that the intended target group will be

disenfranchised by students with higher qualifications, resulting in a cohort for whom the Programme was not intended and leaving the core problem unsolved.

The use of a Problem Based Methodology within a Project Cycle Management approach in my opinion provided the basis upon which stakeholders could focus on the problems faced by the potential target group and to identify what the project should include to address these problems while at the same time providing sustainable benefits. The PCM approach provided a very flexible, yet systematic way of informing the content and implementation strategy for the ABVET project. The whole approach sat well with a PBM as it was able to not only identify the problems faced by the target group but also provided a structure in the form of a Logical Framework Matrix which was grounded in the problems of the target group and had the potential to respond to the needs of the intended beneficiaries within the context of the current socioeconomic situation in Botswana. This allowed the avoidance of policy and programme importation from another country which may not have been wholly relevant, feasible or sustainable. More importantly the risks and assumptions were presented in the Logframe to promote the visibility of issues surrounding feasibility and sustainability.

The stakeholder matrix was one of the most important aspects of the PBM/PCM approach as the quality of the project outcome was dependent on the quality and relevance of those consulted i.e. the input. Classification of the power and interest of stakeholders was initially based on supposition. However actual levels of power and interest did not become apparent until focus group meetings and interviews were conducted. What materialised was interesting – levels of interest and power depended on the personality of the stakeholder as well as their role in society and whether they perceived that the proposed ABVET project would impact in a direct or personal way in their work or life - either positively or negatively. It was therefore important during the consultation process to try and establish ‘who thought what and why’.

The problem analysis was instrumental in planning the content and implementation strategy and identifying the target group for the ABVET project. By scoping the perceived problems faced by the target group, the cause and effect approach to problem analysis facilitated the identification of relevant project results, its purpose and overall

objective. During the study, however, the problem analysis had the potential to become overwhelming and too complicated by the very open and frank nature of the Motswana consulted. It then became incredibly difficult for the focus groups and DVET to decide what could be achieved with the limited resources available. The strategy analysis therefore played an important final step in the identification of how the project could be feasibly and sustainably implemented through the identification of project activities and associated risks and assumptions for inclusion in the LFM.

In my opinion, the LFM provided a useful tool for the organisation and visualisation of the ABVET project, but was complicated to assemble due to the interconnectivity required between the components. This framework has the potential to provide a useful monitoring and evaluation tool. It must be stressed, however, that like any other project, it will only become more clearly defined and shaped during the implementation stage, which stresses the importance of its fluidity and the scope for implementation teams to continually monitor and review the logframe and make adjustments when necessary. It is risky to proceed with implementation if the LFM is not revisited on a regular basis to review and remind stakeholders of the logic of the intervention and the rationale behind the activities. One of the most important points to be stressed is that any logframe should not be perceived as an end in itself. Instead it should be seen as the product of a collaborative planning process which will need further collaboration and consensus for changes emerging during its implementation. Though the LFM is an effective design and monitoring tool its use cannot ensure project success and requires leadership and management to drive towards its results and resolution of the core problem.

In my opinion, whilst PBM is a very rich medium through which solutions to educational problems can be found, it does not go far enough in situations such as this, which require not only solutions to identified problems, but also strategies for implementation and the need to disseminate the findings as a working tool to others who may not have been directly involved in the research. As a result, in my opinion, the marriage between the PBM and PCM provided the much needed balance of methodological justification and the ‘right tools for the job’

In summary the PCM approach and PBM requires experienced and skilled facilitation to be effective. Trans-cultural and gender sensitive facilitation is required to ensure effective participation and to ensure that participants develop ownership of the proposed project. Effective, trustworthy relationships typically take a great deal of time to develop and I may have benefited a great deal from in my role as an established Technical Assistant. Others doing such a project from the beginning need to factor into the project additional time and space for relationship building to avoid the real possibility that the exercise being perceived by the stakeholders as nothing more than a donor driven, bureaucratic exercise. At all times I tried to maintain collaboration, avoid imposing opinion and exercising rights of 'veto' in wording in the Logframe. If this was not the case I ran the risk of being perceived as imperialistic and regenerating colonial ideals and of the new ABVET project being labelled as western centric.

PART TWO

Conclusions

Education and training is undoubtedly of great significance to developing countries trying to address many of their socioeconomic challenges. In recognition of this, the Government of Botswana has developed a number of educational and economic policies. However, in a period of increased competition and fiscal belt-tightening, Botswana is trying to tackle socioeconomic issues through a neo-liberalist approach to development. Free market economics, however, has been heavily criticised for its failure to address many of the problems faced by those who are less fortunate. In an environment of survival of the fittest, it seems that those with limited human and social capital are suffering the most.

In an endeavour to redress the imbalance between economic development and social justice, the EC have been instrumental in Botswana in promoting a collaborative development agenda focussed on those in most need. The proposed ABVET project is a clear case in point. With assistance from the EC the ABVET project has been implicitly approved for funding in the Financing Agreement for the Sector Policy Support Programme in 2004. The inclusion of the ABVET project as a performance indicator for budget support disbursement subsequently resulted in a refocusing of

government efforts to achieve agreed targets focussed on sustainable development in the HRD sector.

The apparent reluctance by the Government, in the late 1990's, to invest in adult basic education may have been due a lack of up to date research at that time into the benefits of such a programme (World Bank 1995: 89-90). In addition, it could be argued that the poor perception of the value and success of the on-going National Literacy Programme may have negatively impacted on the opinions of policy makers on the worth of such investment. This piece of research therefore employed a well tested methodology used widely in the development community in the design of the project to facilitate a reconceptualisation of adult basic education in Botswana through a move away from the 'one-size-fits-all' approach to literacy (Rogers, 2005).

On reflection, my choice of Problem Based Methodology and the Project Cycle Management approach for this piece of research provided an invaluable tool for identifying, engaging and consulting with relevant stakeholders. Through consultation, stakeholder problems were analysed to identify how the proposed project should be structured, what activities it should contain and how best it should be implemented to improve its relevance, feasibility and likely sustainability. The reliability and validity of the data using a Project Cycle Management approach does, however, depend on the quality of the stakeholder analysis and in particular whether the target group has been accurately identified. It must be acknowledged that limitations in the design of the research strategy - in particular the wide range of data collection methods used, the limited number of people who were consulted meant that there is a real possibility that important issues may have been missed or lost in the mass of evidence collected. This may subsequently impact negatively on development and implementation of the ABVET project. Balance in the choice of key stakeholders, particularly the educationists and employers, was crucial to the equilibrium of the response strategy of the project. In hindsight it may have been better to have used far fewer data collection methods and consulted a larger sample from the potential target group. This may have yielded richer data and the potential for a more thorough analysis of their problems, and a more responsive set of objectives, results and activities in the Logical Framework Matrix.

I believe this project has the potential to be a milestone in the provision of adult basic education and training in Botswana and possibly wider. The ABVET Programme will be the first time in Botswana's short history that citizens previously excluded from the formal education system have a second chance to gain a nationally recognised qualification through formal education. The efforts to design a qualification that will have currency and relevance in the labour market will not only equip its graduates with a valuable credential that will contribute to their human capital, but it will also provide them with the skills and attitudes to build on their social capital and improve their chances in life to access the labour market or further their education and training.

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APPENDIX 1

Terms of Reference

1. Assist DVET to develop a hybrid of the Botswana Technical Education Programme (BTEP) design rules for a Vocational Basic Skills Programme.
2. Advise DVET on the grouping of vocational Basic Skills units into a coherent awards structure.
3. Assist in the preparation of a project schedule to permit full programme development within one year of approval by the Ministry of Education Policy Advisory Committee.
4. Advise on the Technical Quality of the Units produced by the curriculum development groups and assist in finalising the unit specifications.
5. Assist in the preparation of validation documentation for each qualification.
6. Assist and advise DVET to monitor progress, bottlenecks, issues and problems in relation to the project schedule.
7. Assist and advise DVET in the supervision and evaluation of all short term consultancies commissioned to support programme development.
8. Assist DVET to establish links with other Departments concerned with Basic Skills through a wide range of activities including secondments, lecturers, exchanges, conferences, visits, quality assurance and research.

APPENDIX 2

Selected Recommendations of the Revised National Policy on Education (1994)

REC 57 (d)	The Ministry of Education's proposal for providing an institutional full-time basic vocational training programme in a number of vocational fields as a common preparation for apprenticeship and other institutional and employer training programmes should be implemented.
REC 61 (b)	A Basic Vocational training programme of institutional training should be developed to lead to Level 1 of the National Vocational Awards Scheme.
REC 73 (1 – 6)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. To establish a learning society in which education is seen as a lifelong process.2. To guarantee access to basic education for school-age children and adults to promote equity and social justice.3. To provide opportunities for young people and adults to further their initial education to higher stages to raise the general level of education of the population.4. To provide opportunities for adults to acquire work-related skills that will improve their productivity and standard of living, and promote economic growth.5. To increase the ability of adults to take part in social, political, cultural and sporting affairs to improve their quality of life and promote greater participation in the development process.6. Work related skills including communication, language and numerical skills are vital for improving productivity.

APPENDIX 3

Stakeholder Matrix

Type of Stakeholder	Assumed level of interest and power	Stakeholder	Potential Influence	Data collection technique
Key Stakeholders	High Power High Interest	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • College Lecturers • Curriculum Development Group • Programme Advisory Committee <p>Officials in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Department of Non-Formal Education • Special Needs Department • Primary Department • Secondary Department • Botswana Training Authority • Botswana College of Open & Distance Learning • Curriculum Development & Evaluation • Regional Officers • Department of Vocational Education & Training • European Commission • Technical College Management 	<p>Implementers</p> <p>Implementers</p> <p>Implementers & decision makers</p> <p>Decision makers</p>	<p>Focus Group discussions</p> <p>Respondent interviews</p>
Primary Stakeholders	High Power Low Interest	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employers • Unemployed 	<p>End users</p> <p>End users</p>	Questionnaires
	High Interest Low Power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary Head Teachers • Junior Secondary Head Teachers • Brigades Management • Unskilled employees 	<p>Informants</p> <p>Potential end-users</p>	Questionnaires
Secondary Stakeholders	Low Interest Low Power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existing BTEP Students 	Informants	Questionnaires

APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The Department of Vocational Education and Training is currently undertaking research to find out whether there is a need for a new adult basic education and training programme in Botswana. If you think there is a need for a new adult basic education and training programme we would like your opinion on what it should include and who it should be designed for.

I would like to find out your opinion on three issues:

1. **Whether** you think that there is a need for a Basic Skills programme.
2. **Who** you think a Basic Skills programme should be designed for and
3. **What** you think the programme should contain.

There are 6 questions, which should take no longer than 40 minutes:

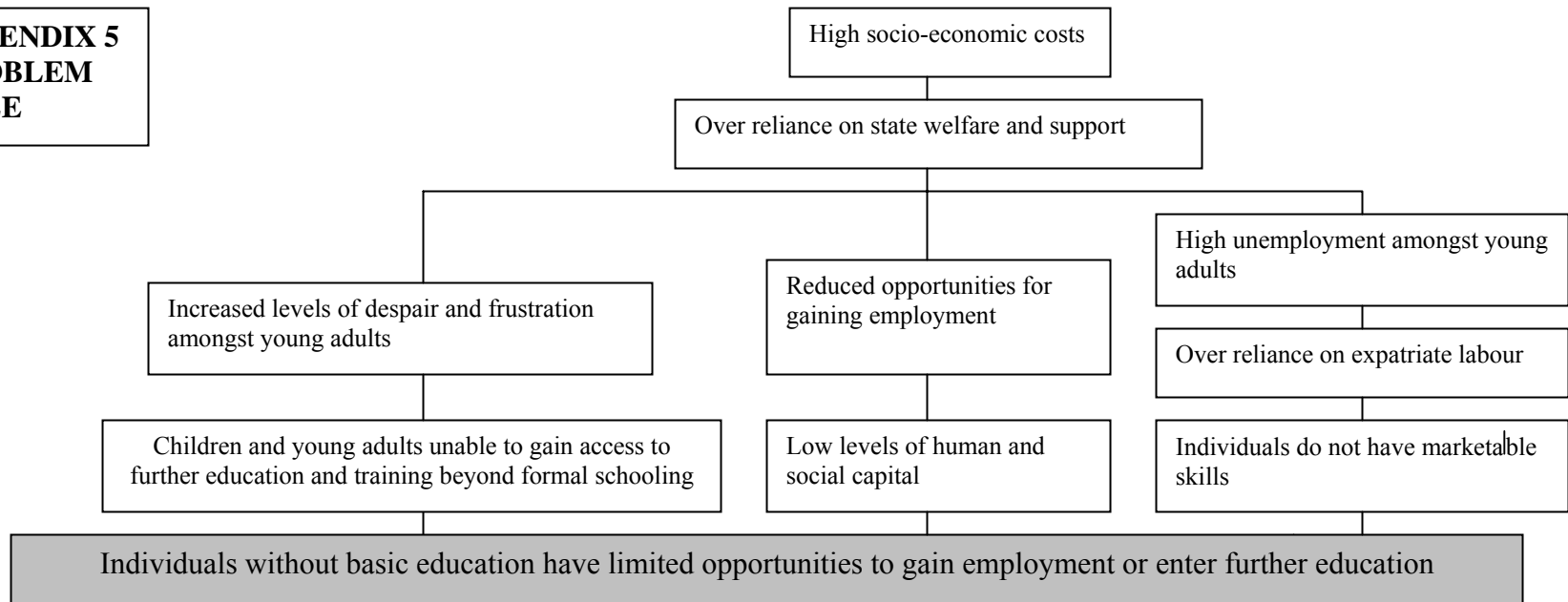
- 1) What do you think is the lowest qualification needed to get a job?
- 2) How do you think we could help adults without this qualification get a job?
- 3) Do you think there is adequate provision for Basic Skills in Botswana? If no, why?
- 4) Who do you think the Technical Colleges should admit on to a basic skills programme? Give reasons for your response.
- 5) What do you think should be included in a basic skills programme?
- 6) Would you consider joining a Programmes Advisory Committee to assist with the development of the programme?

Do you think there is anything else you would like to add in terms of the content of a new programme that you think is important?

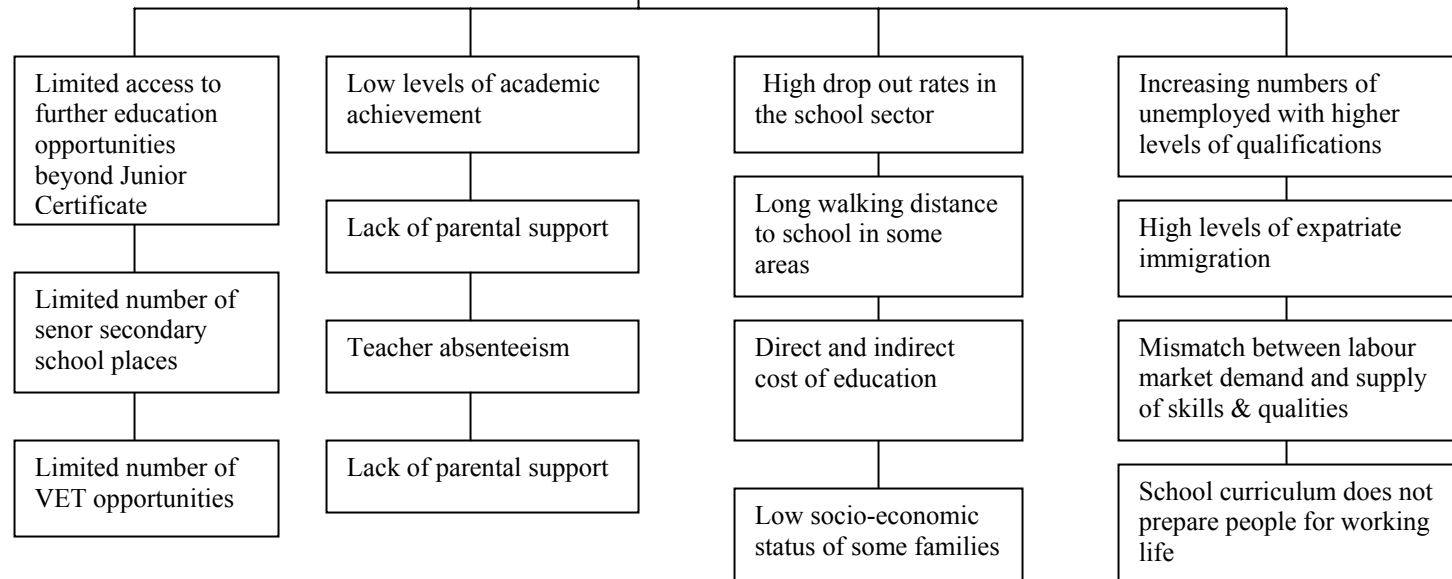
Thank you very much for your help.

**APPENDIX 5
PROBLEM
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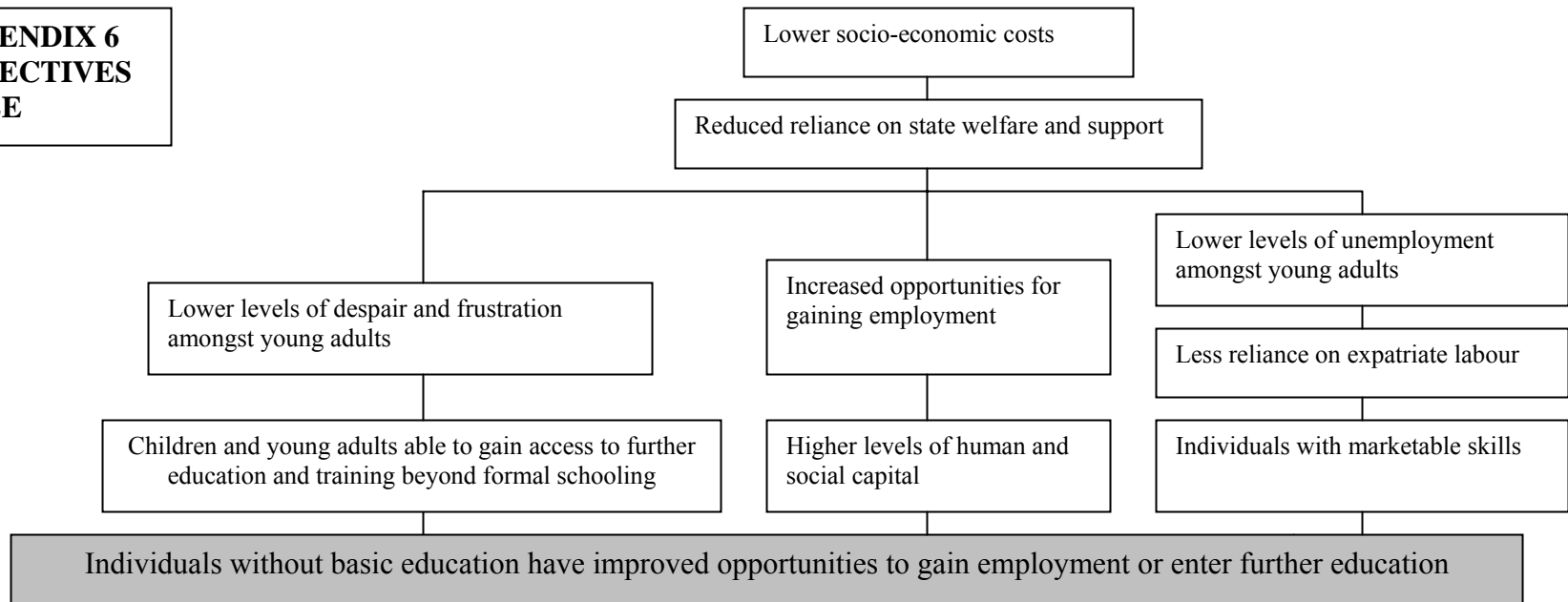


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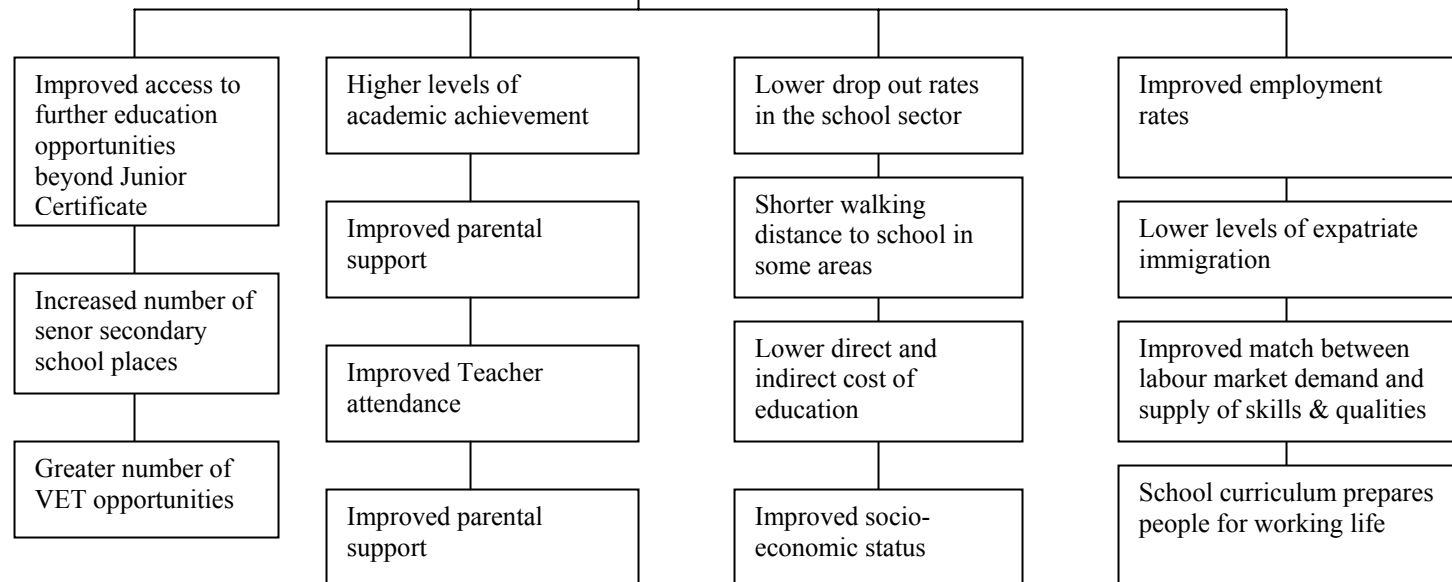


**APPENDIX 6
OBJECTIVES
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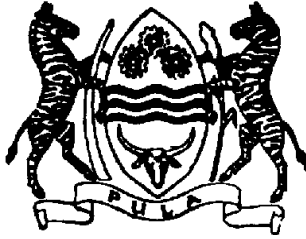
APPENDIX 7 LOGICAL FRAMEWORK MATRIX

	Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training Project – Botswana			
	<i>Intervention Logic</i>	<i>Objectively Verifiable Indicators – Indicators of achievement</i>	<i>Verification source – How, when, and by whom indicators will be measured</i>	<i>Assumptions & Risks</i>
Overall Objectives	Employment levels amongst those with low or no formal qualifications improved.	Number of unemployed with low or no formal qualifications reduced from 24% to 20% by 2016.	Central Statistics Office figures	Growth in the economy remains on target.
Programme purpose	To develop the relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes of individuals without basic education to improve their chances of gaining employment or entering further education.	Employment rate of ABVET graduates applying for work is 60% within six months of completing the programme. Progression rate for those applying for further education and training opportunities is 90% within one year of completing the programme.	Tracer Study Reports Tracer Study Reports	Government supports initiatives for an inclusive system of education
Expected Result	Relevant training programme developed and implemented that builds marketable skills, knowledge and attitudes.	30 students enrolled on the ABVET programme by the end of 2008.	Enrolments figures from the Central Statistics Office	VET institutions willing to enrol students for ABVET

	Expected Result: Relevant training programme developed and implemented that builds marketable skills, knowledge and attitudes.			
	<i>Activities</i>	<i>Means (Physical and non-physical resources)</i>	<i>Costs</i>	<i>Assumptions and Risks</i>
	- Design the new ABVET programme to be suitable for those with either a PSLE or without formal qualifications.	Human resources available with the knowledge and expertise to be able to design and write the new programme. Technical Assistance from SQA to ensure that the programme is benchmarked to international standards for endorsement purposes.	Human resources within the institutions already exist. No additional staff will be required. One SQA consultant for 5 days at a cost of 3,500 Pula per day.	Staff within the institutions are willing to develop the proposed programme.
	- Recruit an additional member of staff at DVET Headquarters to develop and implement the ABVET project.	Human resources and additional office space	70,000 Pula per year	Ministry of Education is willing to release an establishment post for this purpose.
	- Design entrance requirements for the ABVET programme to allow PSLE and non-qualification holders only to apply.	Revised admissions policy in Technical Colleges and Brigades.	None	The management in Technical Colleges and Brigades are willing to amend their admissions policy
	- Advertise new ABVET programme in such a way as to target the most vulnerable groups.	Finance and materials available to advertise the new ABVET programme to community groups and individuals who may live in remote areas or be unable to read and write.	15,000 Pula for publishing materials and visits to community groups.	The management in Technical Colleges and Brigades are willing to amend their recruitment policy for the ABVET programme.
	- Sensitise Technical College and Brigades management to the need for flexible evening and weekend provision for ABVET students.	Series of meetings with Technical College and Brigades staff. Revision of pay procedures to allow for evening and weekend payments.	1,000 Pula per visit to 6 Technical Colleges and 6 Brigades 20,000 Pula per year to pay staff for teaching beyond normal working hours.	Government is willing to adapt current pay regime to cover evening and weekend work.
	- Recruitment of new staff with appropriate experience and qualifications	Staff from other sub-sectors with appropriate experience and qualifications.	60,000 Pula per year for each member of staff recruited.	Staff from other sub-sectors are willing to apply. Ministry of Education is willing to release new establishment posts for this purpose.

	- Sensitise Technical College teaching staff to the unique needs of ABVET students.	Employment of an appropriately qualified and experienced teacher trainer to train Technical College and Brigades staff.	160,000 Pula to recruit a teacher trainer to support ABVET staff during first two years.	A suitable teacher trainer can be recruited.
	- Develop and implement a new tutoring policy for the support of ABVET students	Human resources to develop the policy	None	Staff are available and willing to implement a tutoring policy with ABVET students.
	- Develop and implement a new resource sharing policy	Human Resource to develop the new policy	None	Technical College, Brigades and DVET management agree to the need for a resource sharing policy at the ministerial and institutional levels.
	- Initiate use of Learning Resource Centre when it opens at the pilot centre.	New Learning Resource Centre complete and available		New Learning Resource Centre is completed on time.
	- Provide in-service training for identified ABVET teaching staff.	Extended employment of teacher trainer to train, coach and mentor college staff before and after they begin teaching ABVET students.	160,000 Pula to recruit a teacher trainer to support ABVET staff during first two years.	Staff are willing and available to be trained, coached and mentored by the teacher trainer at appropriate times Technical College and Brigades Management willing to release staff for training during term time.
	- Develop relevant teaching, learning and assessment materials for staff new to the ABVET programme	Human resources available with the expertise to develop teaching, learning and assessment materials suitable for ABVET students		Staff are willing to engage in materials development
	- Development student learning contracts	None	None	Students willing to sign learning contracts.
	- Means testing introduced for financial assistance and fee waiving	Money is released from Government to pay for grants to needy ABVET students	750 Pula per student per year to cover the cost of fees and 2000 Pula per year to cover the cost of living expenses.	Government is willing to allocate money to ABVET students with a genuine financial need

APPENDIX 8



GOVERNMENT OF BOTSWANA
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
Department of Vocational Education and Training
Private Bag 0062
Gaborone
Fax: 00267 302080

1st February 2004

Dear Sir/ Madam,

Questionnaire for the Development of an Adult Basic Education and Training Programme

The Department of Vocational Education and Training (DVET) is committed to providing graduates of our Technical Colleges with the skills and knowledge required by business and industry. To achieve this purpose, this questionnaire is designed to establish the feasibility of developing an Adult Basic Vocational Education and Training Programme within Botswana.

Your input is crucial to ensure that our programmes reflect what is required.

The information you provide will be completely confidential.

If you wish to comment on any topic not covered in the survey, or if you need additional space, attach extra sheets to the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your considered answers to this questionnaire; it should not take longer than half an hour. Your contribution will help us to provide quality basic skills for non-qualification or PSLE holders to enable them to function better in society or progress to higher levels within the BTEP.

If you require additional information or clarification, please call Mrs. K. Cottrell on 3655000.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please post it, in the free stamped addressed envelope provided and return it on or before the 20th February 2004.

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation,

Yours sincerely,

Technical Assistant

Basic Skills Questionnaire

Basic Skills can be defined as the lowest level of skills required for an adult to cope with everyday situations and simple tasks in the workplace.

With this in mind, please answer the following questions as fully as possible:

1. **What minimal educational qualification do you think an individual needs to function in work and society? Please tick.**

None	
Primary School Leaving Certificate (PSLE)	
Junior Certificate (JC)	
Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education (BGCSE)	
Other (please specify)	

2. **Rank the following subjects below in order of importance for an adult learner, 1 being the highest.**

Communication / English	
Numeracy / Maths	
ICT / Computers	
Study skills	
Life skills	
Agriculture	
Art / Design	
Technology	
Geography	
History	
PE	
Others please specify	

3. **Which of the following basic skills would you include in a programme for adults? Please tick.**

Communication	
Numeracy	
Vocational subjects	
Study Skills	
Life Skills	
ICT / Computers	
Work Experience	
Other (please specify)	

4. For adults with no formal qualifications or a PSLE briefly list:

a) What would you teach in Communication / English

b) What would you teach in Numeracy / Maths

c) What would you teach in Study Skills

d) What would you teach in Life Skills

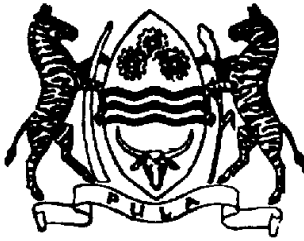
e) What would you teach in ICT / Computers

5. Do you think a Basic Skills Programme is necessary for young adults in Botswana? Please tick

Yes ☐ **No** ☐

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX 9



GOVERNMENT OF BOTSWANA
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
Department of Vocational Education and Training
Private Bag 0062
Gaborone
Tel: 3655000
Fax: 3180941
Email: kcottrell@gov.bw

13th May, 2004

FAX

Dear Sir/ Madam,

The Department of Vocational Education and Training (DVET) is currently developing an adult basic education and training programme for young adults in Botswana. Your input into the content of the programme is essential to ensure that the skills and knowledge taught are relevant for industry's needs.

We would be very grateful if you could spend a few moments of your time completing the questionnaire attached. All your responses will be treated in confidence.

Please fax your completed questionnaire to:

Mrs. K. Cottrell Fax no: 3180941

If you require any additional information or clarification, please call Mrs. Cottrell on 3655000.

Thank you very much for your cooperation,

Yours sincerely,

Mrs. K. Cottrell
Technical Assistant - Key Skills

- 1) What is the nature of your business?

Manufacturing	
Trading	
Service	

- 2) How many employees do you have?

1 – 19 employees	
20 – 49 employees	
50 – 199 employees	
200 + employees	

- 3) What is the lowest level of worker you employ?

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- 4) What is the **minimum/ lowest** qualification you recruit?

None	
Primary School Leaving Certificate (PSLE)	
Junior Certificate (JC)	
Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education (BGCSE)	
Degree	
Other (please specify)	

- 5) List four subjects you need in this qualification (if any)?

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- 6) For your **lowest level** employee, how important do you consider the following skills for recruitment:

Area of study	Essential	Desirable	Not required
Speaking skills			
Listening skills			
Reading and understanding written documents			
Writing skills			
Doing calculations			
Measuring			
Reading or making tables, charts and graphs			
Using the computer			
Working with others			
Working independently			
Work experience			

- 7) What other knowledge or skills do you think are important in an employee at the lowest level of your company?

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX 10

Interview Schedule for Unemployed

1. What qualifications do you have?

3. What subjects did you find difficult at school and why?

2. Have you ever worked? If yes, what?

3. Is it difficult to find work? YES NO

4. Why do you think it is difficult to find work?

5. What job would you like to do?

6. Would you like to study more YES NO

7. If yes why?

8. If no why?

9. What would you like to study?

10. Why would you like to study this subject?

11. What other subjects do you think would help you get a job?

APPENDIX 11

Interview Schedule for Employees

1. What is your job?

2. What qualifications do you have?

3. Can you describe what you do?

4. Do you do any writing?	YES	NO
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5. Do you do any reading?	YES	NO
---------------------------	-----	----

6. Do you have to listen and talk to people?	YES	NO
--	-----	----

7. Do you have to do any maths?	YES	NO
---------------------------------	-----	----

8. Do you use a computer?	YES	NO
---------------------------	-----	----

9. Would you like to start you own business?	YES	NO
--	-----	----

10. Is there any part of your job that you find difficult? Why?

11. If you had a chance to go back to study what would you do? Explain why.

APPENDIX 12

Name (optional) _____

Programme: _____

Foundation Student Questionnaire Basic Skills

1. List two subjects you found difficult at school and give one reason why you found each subject difficult.

Difficult Subject	Reason why difficult

2. List two subjects you found easy at school and give one reason why you found each subject easy.

Easy Subject	Reason why easy

3. What is your highest qualification? _____

4. What do you think is the lowest qualification someone needs to get a job?

5. Do you think people without a JC can find work? (Tick one)

Easily

Quite Easily

Difficult

Impossible

6. If someone without a JC was to enter a technical college, what subjects do you think they should learn to help them get a job? List the subjects and give a reason why you think it is important.

Subject	Why important

7. What kind of additional help do you think someone without a JC would need to help them learn in college?

APPENDIX 13

Analysis of job requirements

Job	Qualifications required	Experience Required	Job Description
Driver	PSLE or JC	Ability to read and write both Setswana and English Driving license	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drive vehicles • Basic vehicle maintenance • Completes log book
Labourer	PSLE or JC	Ability to read and write both Setswana and English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cleans vehicles • General manual tasks • Cleans premises • Waters flowers
Messenger	JC	2 years clean driving license	None specified
Administration Officer	JC Business studies Computer literacy	2 years as an administration clerk and/or receptionist	None specified
Cleaner	None specified	Able to work under minimum supervision	None specified
Cleaner	PSLE	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General cleaning • Make tea • Lock and unlocking offices • Moving supplies • Assists messengers • Reports breakages
Meter reader	BGCSE	Interpersonal skills Communication skills Physically fit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Record meter readings • Process meter readings
Driver	JC Ability to communicate verbally and in writing in English Vehicle maintenance	5 years experience Driving license	None specified
Administration assistant	BGCSE	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintains vote ledger • Collects revenues • Prepares claims • Receives invoices • Enters data on computers

APPENDIX 14

Executive Summary and Recommendations

JAA Team assessment of EDF 9 Tranche 2 Indicators October 2006

Indicators that are **achieved** are awarded 100% of the disbursement weight

Indicators that are **partially achieved** are awarded 50% of the disbursement weight

Indicators that are **not achieved** are awarded 0% of the disbursement weight

Indicators 9, 13 do not contribute to the 2006/2007 Tranche release.

Indicator (weight in disbursement in brackets for tranche 2)	Achieved/Partially Achieved / Not Achieved
1. A favourable sustainability ratio of 1 or below in previous year's budget revised estimate (2005 -2006). (15%)	Achieved: The sustainability ratio for the revised budget estimate for 2005/2006 was 0.77 which achieves the target set for tranche 2.
2. Better targeting of needs and priorities and more effective allocation of financial resources: GoB undertakes an Education Public Expenditure Review (EPER) and the MFDP/MoE make relevant decisions in relation to its findings. (6%)	Achieved: The Tender for the Study was launched on the 6th October 2006 which achieves the target set for tranche 2.
3. More efficient management of resources: Following the recommendations of an Organisation and Management (O&M) review of the Ministry of Education, decisions will be made and implemented. (3%)	Achieved: The O & M report was adopted by the MOE in July 2006.
4. Adoption by Government of a Human Resources Development Strategy, reflecting equal opportunities, to use Government resources more efficiently and to avoid fragmentation and duplication (2%)	Achieved: The Inception report for the National HRD Strategy was approved in August 2006.
5. Implementation of an effective Education Management Information System (EMIS) (6%)	Partially Achieved: Training for all 19 local staff in the IT Unit have been either upgraded from Diploma to degree level or have received professional training in IT personnel has taken place and is on-going; the incorporation of the SASM situation analysis has not been completed; Inception report based on the implementation experience of EMIS to date has been prepared
6. Following a review of its extent and nature, the apparent lack of resources , such as infrastructures (school classes in particular) and others (human, equipment, learning materials such as text books, etc) including training for the first and second levels, is redressed through an action plan which prioritises areas currently in greatest need (2%)	Achieved: The Final report was presented by the Team (Appendix II) to the Permanent Secretary, MOE and Local Government in August 2006.
7. Annual increase of 1.0% in Net Enrolment Rate 6-12 years old in primary education	Achieved: NER for 2003 is 90% (Target 90%)

(O/O). (9%)	
8. Annual increase of 2% in TVET enrolment (O/O). (8%)	Achieved: There were 11,133 students enrolled in the TVET sector in 2003 (Target 11,100)
9. A new Basic Skills Programme is developed and implemented, allowing for the social inclusion of citizens with no qualifications. (8%)	NOT applicable until Tranche 3.
10. The net dropout rate at primary level (O/O) should remain at a maximum of 1% in each year. (9%)	Achieved: The drop out rate in 2003 was 0.88%
11. The net dropout rate at secondary level (O/O) should remain at a maximum of 2% in each year. (9%)	Achieved: The net dropout rate in 2003 at secondary level was 2.01%.
12. Increase the enrolment of female students across TVET by 2% per year.. (8%)	Partially Achieved: CSO statistics for 2003 indicate A 38.18% enrolment rate of female students while unofficial MOE data presents a rate of 39.71% (Target 40%).
13. Increased opportunities in TVET for students with learning difficulties. (8%)	Not applicable until Tranche 3.
14. Adoption of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) (2%)	Achieved: The NQF Inception Report was submitted mid-April 2006.
15. Establishment of a new inspectorate framework (2%)	Achieved: An Action Plan for the implementation of the recommendations to establish a new Inspectorate Framework has been adopted
16. Annual increase of 1% in the proportion candidates achieving grades A-C at PSLE (O/O). (5%)	Not Achieved: In 2005 the number of candidates achieving grades A – C was 79%, which is below the 82% target set for 2005
17. No increase in the proportion of pupils not present for examination and those receiving an unclassified grade at PSLE. (7%)	Achieved: 6.14% of the Standard 7 enrolment were not present for their PSLE in 2005 which is lower than the baseline target of 7%.
18. No decrease in the proportion of grades A-C at BGCSE (5%)	Achieved: Number of candidates achieving grades A* - C in 2005 for all BGCSE subjects was 41.5%.
19. Increase in completion rate at CTVE (0/0) by 5% over two cycles. (9%)	Not applicable until Tranche 4.
20. Effective provision and integration of HIV/AIDS awareness in curricula provided at primary and secondary levels (2%)	Achieved: All school and college HIV/AIDS coordinators trained in a variety of curriculum initiatives aimed at the provision and integration of HIV/AIDS awareness.